

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XLIX * JANUARY 1941 * NUMBER 1

Educational News and Editorial Comment

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CONCERN ABOUT DEMOCRACY

MOST of the declarations regarding national preparedness emphasize the need for a new and dynamic national unity. The Educational Policies Commission, in its publication *Education and the Defense of American Democracy*, admonishes us: "Slogans, rituals, and appeals to emotion are not enough. Knowledge, reflection, and the master-teacher, experience, are essential to moral defense." In the degree that we rely too largely on slogans, rituals, and appeals to emotion, we are following very closely in the path of the totalitarian states.

Enlightening our loyalty to the ideals of democracy One of the great evils inherent in any emotional or perfectionistic interpretation of democracy is that school children who have been subjected to such a picture do not see any relationship between what they learn in school and the behavior of the city council. Many of our journalists insist that a national crisis is no time for any lessons in the limitations of democracy. Some professional educators would seem to go even farther, as is evidenced by the following sentences taken from an editorial in the *Educational Research Bulletin*.

I

Boston University
School of Education
Library

The school first should develop in its pupils warm and friendly attitudes toward the ideals of democracy. Later, when these have been developed in the young, it will be necessary to call attention to defects in practices and seek ways of improving them, constructively, not in a spirit of cynicism and despair.

There would seem to be considerable reason for contending that it is just during the period of crisis that the weaknesses of democracy must be most clearly seen in order that compensation may be made for them. Certainly those persons who are incapable of devotion to democracy as it actually operates should not be trusted with its defense. The chief danger of the "warm and friendly" approach (and this is emotional mildness in contrast to some of the projected plans for teaching democracy) is that emphasis on the perfection of any political system is frequently accompanied by inconstancy. The uniforms, the music, the tramp of marching feet, and the waving flags steal the show from the grand object of all the excitement—a way of arriving at decisions. While we are paying such close attention to the fireworks, someone may switch idols on us.

Democracy is respected and revered in this country only because a large group of persons believe that democratic procedures make for more happiness (read "welfare," "well-being," "economic security," "spiritual freedom," or any other term that sums up all values) than would be possible under any other sort of political organization. As soon as this belief is no longer held, or at best shortly afterward, democracy will go. This fact seems so elementary that it is difficult to understand why those of us who are favored by the "American way" do not get busier to make it work better for more people. Just repeating again and again, "Democracy is grand and worth dying for," is fruitless. Democracy is only worth dying for if it is actually *worth* dying for—if its fruits are so important to a person that he would sooner contemplate death than the prospect of living undemocratically. Ordway Tead, in an article appearing in *Frontiers of Democracy* under the title "And Now Where Are We?" has the idea. He writes:

All that the last ten years have taught us about the struggle of the democratic aspiration for survival in a society facing out upon nations which hold this aspiration up to ridicule, only underscores the need for rapidly strengthening our *educational* attack upon the problem of supplying children with experiences which make them love democracy because they come to identify and love its *unique and beneficent fruits* [italics ours].

This basis is a realistic one for a "warm and friendly feeling" and, in all likelihood, the only enduring one.

Those who expect too much of democracy are usually those who are first to be disillusioned. They become the cynics, and they throw the baby out with the bath water. Looking for perfection, they are bowled over by every breeze of doctrine that comes along, and they get up each time facing in a new direction. There is nothing quite like the devotion of a man to an institution when he knows both that its virtues are innumerable and that its limitations are few. His is an enlightened loyalty, and it is hard to believe that the experiences which lead to this enlightened loyalty should be deferred until the age of ten, or twelve, or eighteen.

A creed for democracy in the current world-crisis More than 130 members of the faculty of Teachers College, Columbia University, recently indicated their acceptance of a creed which they have published in a pamphlet entitled *Democracy and Education in the Current Crisis*. They had "watched with growing alarm the series of events which have brought most of Europe and much of Asia under the domination of ruthless, military dictatorships," and they no longer "doubted that the present world-crisis constitutes a threat of the most serious character to the United States and to the democratic way of life for which it stands. The situation calls for clear thinking and prompt action."

In an attempt to clarify this thinking about democracy, as well as to provide a firmer basis for prompt action, the members of the faculty present "A Creed of Democracy" of sixty items, of which the following are representative.

We believe in and will endeavor to make a democracy which—

- 1—extends into every realm of human association;
- 2—respects the personality of every individual, whatever his origin or present status;
- 3—insures to all a sense of security;
- 4—protects the weak and cares for the needy that they may maintain their self-respect;
- 5—develops in all a sense of belongingness;
- 6—protects every individual against exploitation by special privilege or power;
- 7—believes in the improvability of all men;

- 8—has for its social aim the maximum development of each individual;
- 9—assumes that the maximum development possible to each individual is for the best interest of all;
- 10—provides an opportunity for each and every individual to make the best of such natural gifts as he has and encourages him to do so;
- 11—furnishes an environment in which every individual can be and is stimulated to exert himself to develop his own unique personality, limited only by the similar rights of others;
- 12—assumes that adults are capable of being influenced by reason;
- 13—appeals to reason rather than force to secure its ends;
- 14—permits no armed force that is not under public control;
- 15—implies that a person becomes free and effective by exercising self-restraint rather than by having restraint imposed upon him by external authority;
- 16—imposes only such regulation as is judged by society to be necessary for safeguarding the rights of others;
- 17—assumes that all persons have equal rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness;

This creed is most admirable. The writer wishes that the list were a bit shorter. Sixty items, without any apparent patterning, are hard to keep in mind. It would be of interest, too, to know the judgment of the Columbia faculty regarding where we do least well and what endeavors we might undertake to improve. This sort of recommendation might be a logical next step. After a statement of objectives should come a penetrating discussion of ways and means for attaining the objectives and an appraisal of the success of our efforts.

Material for an analysis of propaganda in action It may be too late now (the rumor is that the Federal Bureau of Investigation has confiscated the files), but it still would be worth the try for teachers of the social studies to attempt to get on the mailing list of the German Library of Information, 17 Battery Place, New York City. The literature distributed by this organization provides unusual materials for instruction regarding propaganda techniques. It might, of course, be claimed that the releases from the Library of Information are not propaganda in the sense that they are not, by implication and indirection, misleading, but the burden of proof would be heavy. Werner Guttman, writing in the *Survey Graphic* on "What Is the Fifth Column?" states: "The German Libraries of Information are the foreign branches of the German Ministry of Propaganda and Information and serve as the head-

quarters of the German propaganda agents abroad." The great advantage of news releases that are mailed from such a source is that their purpose is clear. It would be advantageous if other types of propaganda were as plainly labeled.

A recent number of *Facts in Review*, issued by the German Library of Information, contains sections entitled: "What Germany Hears and Says," "The Outlook in Holland," "A Spaniard Looks at Catholicism in Germany," "Agricultural Problems and Progress in Poland," "The New Spirit in German Industry," and "The German Film in Wartime." Needless to say, the section entitled "What Germany Hears and Says" is a long list of German victories and British stupidities. "The Outlook in Holland" is a broadcast by L. G. Waadrens, formerly an announcer on the Dutch short-wave station PCJ at Hilversum, in which it is reported that the war scars in Holland are relatively few and that Holland is now ready to take her place in a new European order.

The publications of the German Library of Information make clever use of illustrations. One of the earlier numbers of *Facts in Review* represented a strenuous attempt to create the impression that the citizens of those countries conquered by the German troops were quite happy about it. An illustration on the front cover shows two German aviators and a couple of Norwegian boys, all smilingly investigating the intricacies of skis. The caption is "Viking Meets Viking—A German aviator, trying on skis, establishes Entente Cordiale with a young Norwegian expert." On the following page appears a picture of a German and a Norwegian soldier, each guarding the royal palace in Norway's capital, Oslo, and smiling at each other. The king of Denmark is described as one who "preserved his people from the holocaust of war."

PERSONALITY AND TECHNICAL COMPETENCE

THE importance of the teacher's personality has been the subject of much discussion and research in educational publications of the last few years. The number of items pertaining to personality traits which appear on rating blanks distributed by reputable teacher-placement agencies has long been a cause for wonderment. Technical competence is assumed to be unimportant, or to be unascertainable, or to be synonymous with personality. School admin-

istrators are usually most articulate in their reiteration of the great importance that an attractive personality bears to a teacher's success. As a matter of fact, this phase of the individual's behavior repertoire is about all that is revealed in the customary twenty-minute interview.

Granting, for the time being, that personality, or charm (these terms are used synonymously in this discussion), and technical teaching competence are not completely overlapping, it is interesting to speculate on the circumstances under which the latter is more important. A reasonable hypothesis is that, in the degree to which the child's school experience makes much sense to him and captures his enthusiasm and imagination and provokes his curiosity, he is less apt to be impressed by his teacher's charm. He wants someone around who can answer his questions or can direct him to places where he can locate the answers. Conversely, in those schools where pupils see little relation between their learning experiences and what they deem important, the teacher must be either charming or muscular to keep them in the room.

This contention is, of course, a hypothesis only. It should not imply any distaste for personal charm, except as this charm hides technical incompetence. If a teacher's poise and pleasant smile and sprightly chatter are accompanied by a profound and functional understanding of children and the experiences they need to mature, that is fine; but such a relationship should not be taken for granted.

It is not beyond the bounds of reason to believe that some objective data could be obtained to determine what are the relations between charm and competence. One approach might involve submitting a check list of teacher traits to children attending both dull schools and vital schools. The children could be asked to indicate those traits that they considered most important in their teacher. If the hypothesis stated above is correct, the children who are engaging in stimulating and meaningful learning experiences would check a larger percentage of traits indicating their concern for technical teaching competence. On the other hand, those children whose learning experiences make less sense to them would be more than likely to state that they deemed most important attributes such as the teacher's sense of humor, kindness, and consideration for others.

"NEGRO YOUTH AT THE CROSSWAYS"

IN A news release the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education describes as follows one of its recent youth studies, *Negro Youth at the Crossways*, which was prepared by E. Franklin Frazier.

Here [is] a vividly human document of particular interest because it deals with a sectional phase of the Negro youth problem probably least familiar to the general public. The "crossways" are the borderlands between the Old South and the Yankee North. Here the Negro has fled the vestigial remnants of rural southern feudalism. He has become largely urbanized and has greater security and opportunity. But he is still segregated; certain civil rights are still denied. The youth often looks longingly northward. . . . He is, therefore, in frequent conflict with parents brought up under the Old South's discipline of submission. . . .

Besides the District of Columbia, the border region includes Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, Kentucky, and Missouri. This region, the author points out, became differentiated from the Old South during the spread of cotton culture. Cotton stopped short of the border states. Hence slavery never thrived in Missouri and Kentucky and had almost disappeared from Maryland by Civil War days. Delaware and the District of Columbia never had more than a sprinkling of slaves. West Virginia had its birth out of a revolt from Virginia slave interests.

There are about a million Negroes in these "crossways," about 9 per cent of the entire American Negro population. A large proportion are migrants from the Old South, or their sons and grandsons. As this colored population is three-quarters urbanized, it has a slightly lower birth-rate and a slightly higher death-rate than southern Negroes. Home ownership and marital status parallel those in the Old South, but the border states seem to have a smaller proportion of broken families. . . .

According to Washington Negroes interviewed, the race enjoys fewer rights and privileges today in the nation's capital than it did a generation ago. There is a color line in industry as well as in social relations. Negro workers are restricted to unskilled and menial tasks. In both cities [Washington, D.C. and Louisville, Kentucky] social and employment restrictions often set up a strain within a home in which elders were born to submission in the Old South. There was a boy who complained, "A white man yanked me off a streetcar because I got on ahead of a white woman. I went home crying, knowing that my father would do something about it." But the father simply told him he "should have known better" and thereby lost his son's respect and confidence. This condition is found particularly true of lower-class families of unskilled laborers and domestic workers. . . .

Color lines within the ranks run all through the book. A light brown girl who

had a darker girl for a chum said, "The kids used to tease her and ask if she was my servant. She said it was no use for her to go to school. She couldn't get any job worth anything anyhow."

As for the schools, pupils are generally found insisting they wouldn't go to a mixed school with white teachers if they could. In some instances, though, they complain that the Negroes inherit all the old buildings, after they are withdrawn from white use. Another complaint is from the dark-complexioned pupils who claim teachers show favoritism to those of lighter skins. Upper-class Negro teachers tend to have the same attitude toward lower-class Negroes that the whites have, according to those interviewed. . . .

Negro Youth at the Crossways does not attempt to suggest remedies for the handicaps of these youths in transition between two types of civilization, but it offers fresh and valuable data on the problem of Negro youth. And it helps shed light on today's general youth problem.

A companion volume to *Negro Youth at the Crossways* is entitled *Children of Bondage* and is written by Allison Davis and John Dollard for the American Council on Education. It includes eight case studies of Negro youth living in Natchez and New Orleans.

No person can have quite the same attitude toward American democracy and "equality of opportunity" after he has read these two books. The problems raised provide an interesting illustration of our obliviousness to the state of affairs within our own borders. The bullying and mistreatment of Negroes and the denial of economic opportunity to them are rather terrifyingly analogous to the recent persecution of certain other minority groups in Europe.

USING COMMUNITY RESOURCES IN THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

THE Chicago Teachers College exists primarily to educate teachers for metropolitan Chicago. The staff not only appreciates the importance of the teacher's knowledge of his community but has done something about the matter by publishing a stimulating and comprehensive text-syllabus entitled *Chicago: Backgrounds of Education*, written by Jules Karlin and published by Werkman's Book House of Chicago. The most refreshing thing about the book is the sane recognition of the importance of firsthand, perceptual experiences in the development of concepts. Each of the chapters—"The Community," "The Modern Mode of Living: The City," "The Process of Urbanization," "The Rise and Economic Growth of Chicago"—to name four of the twenty—culminates in a well-planned

field trip to some part of Chicago which should make evident to the students the significance of sociology.

The field studies in *Chicago: Backgrounds of Education* are described in terms of aims, a carefully worked out schedule of time and place, and a list of problems for subsequent discussion. For example, the field study which comes at the end of chapter vi, "Dynamic Spatial Pattern of Chicago," appears as follows:

THE NEAR WEST SIDE: A COMMUNITY IN FLUX

Places to visit:

Maxwell Street Y.M.C.A., walking tour through old ghetto area, and the Maxwell Street market.

Walking tour through Italian, Mexican, and Greek colonies, and the Hull House.

The West Side Community Center, Jane Addams Housing Project, and the Jacob Riis School.

Time: 9:00 A.M.-3:30 P.M.

Aims:

1. To study directly one of the oldest sections of the city of Chicago for signs of the changes it has gone through over a period of fifty years.
2. To observe the various immigrant groups, their patterns of behavior, national characteristics, and their efforts to live harmoniously together. This area is particularly rich in affording new experiences of various kinds and opportunities for the growth of students.
3. To survey at first hand the efforts made by the inhabitants of the community, as well as those outside of it, to make a better life possible. The West Side Community Center is an illustration of what has been done indigenously, and the Jane Addams Houses an example of what can be done from the outside.

Schedule for field trip:

9:00—Maxwell Street Y.M.C.A. for a talk by the director on the sociology of the area, the changes through which it has passed and is now passing, as well as its present needs.

9:45—Inspection of the old ghetto area for indications of the great changes through which it has passed and is now passing. . . .

10:15—Inspection of the Italian, Greek, and Mexican colonies.

10:45—Hull House for short talks on the history of Hull House and its role, past and present, in the community. Discussions on the needs of the neighborhood. Tour of inspection of the best-known settlement in the United States. . . .

12:00—Luncheon.

1:15—West Side Community Center. . . .

- 2:00—Jane Addams Houses which were named in honor of the founder of Hull House who first recommended the site. . . .
- 3:00—Jacob Riis School for a short talk by the principal on the relation of the school to the area and to inhabitants of the Jane Addams Houses. Discussion of the role of the school in the community.

For discussion:

1. Describe the various zones of Chicago.
2. What is segregation? Why is it a natural way of living?
3. "The slum is a natural and perhaps inevitable phase in the growth of the city." Discuss.
4. "In areas of greatest mobility, society tends to go to pieces." Discuss.
5. "The ecological patterning of oriental cities is in some respects different from that of occidental cities." Why should this be so?

Admittedly this program means a terrific day. Only careful preparation could make it most effective as an educative experience, but such preparation would represent an excellent investment of a teacher's time. Chicago is, in a sense, unique in the amount of sociological study that it has provoked. Fewer data are available for many other cities, but this fact should be no insurmountable barrier to high-school and college teachers who are concerned with making instruction in the social studies maximally meaningful. No concept of the city's slums is adequate if it has been acquired through words alone. The farther the learning experiences of children or adults are from those firsthand perceptions in which the meanings of words are rooted, the more obscure the meanings become. More educators should be unable to get out of their minds the comment of the Brooklyn first-grade pupil who defined a cow as "a little blue animal"—thanks to the picture on a condensed-milk can.

CHILDREN RATE ONE ANOTHER

THE customary method of obtaining personality ratings of children and adolescents is to ask teachers or other adults to state their opinions. A recent monograph, *Evaluations of Adolescent Personality by Adolescents* by Caroline McCann Tryon (Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. IV, No. 4, Serial No. 23), represents a sensible departure from this practice in that the young people were appraised by their peers. After all, the group the adolescent wants to impress most favorably consists of his friends, not necessarily his teachers, and the distinction between

these groups is frequently both real and apparent. The major purpose of Tryon's study was to discover some of the qualities or aspects of personality which children consider desirable in other children. Two groups of boys and girls, one twelve years of age and the other fifteen, were asked to indicate which ones in the group were best characterized by statements such as: "Is always trying to get others to watch what he can do or to listen to him tell all the things he can do"; "Always thinks about keeping himself clean, neat, and tidy looking"; "Enjoys a fight." Altogether twenty traits were involved in the ratings. The research is summarized in part by this statement.

During the period between ages twelve and fifteen, values for girls have undergone some revolutionary changes; values for boys have undergone relatively minor changes, mainly in terms of slightly shifted emphases. For the twelve-year-old girl, quiet, sedate, nonaggressive qualities are associated with friendliness, likableness, good humor, and attractive appearance. Behavior which conforms to the demands and regulations of the adult world is admired. Tomboyishness is tolerated. At the fifteen-year-old level admiration for the demure, docile, rather prim, lady-like prototype has ceased. Instead, many of the criteria for the idealized boy such as extroversion, activity, and good sportsmanship are highly acceptable for the girl. The ability to organize games for parties involving both sexes and the capacity to keep such activities lively and entertaining is admired. In addition, the quality of being fascinating or glamorous to the other sex has become important but is looked upon as relatively specific or unrelated to other desirable qualities. At the twelve-year level the idealized boy is skilful and a leader in games; his daring and fearlessness extends beyond his social group to defiance of adult demands and regulations. Any characteristic which might be construed as feminine by one's peers such as extreme tidiness or marked conformity in the classroom is regarded as a weakness. However, some personableness and certain kindly, likable qualities tend to be associated with the more highly prized masculine qualities. At fifteen years, prestige for the boy is still in a large measure determined by physical skill, aggressiveness, and fearlessness. Defiance of adult standards has lost emphasis; though still acceptable and rather amusing to them, it tends to be associated with immaturity. In addition much greater emphasis is placed on personal acceptability, suggesting the effectiveness of rising heterosexual interests.

LABORATORY SCHOOL PUBLICATIONS

SOME sort of continuing research should characterize every school system. In the majority of instances the inferences drawn are of local significance only, so that publication may not be justified. The number of articles, however, appearing in the *School Review*

which represent the sort of excellent field research that serves to guide the practice of a large number of schools is impressive.

Certain school systems, such as the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago, are in a somewhat different position so far as the publication of research results is concerned. The faculties of the Laboratory Schools have never thought that their responsibilities were met by excellent instruction alone. There is the additional responsibility of discovering, developing, and appraising new curriculum materials and new methods of teaching. As a result of these latter activities, the fifty-seven teachers and administrators who are at present on the staff of the Laboratory Schools have published, in connection with their work during the ten-year period from January 1, 1930, to January 1, 1940, more than three hundred research or miscellaneous articles and textbooks. The great majority of these publications are curricular materials—either textbooks or enrichment bulletins.

Among these publications may be mentioned the series of monographs issued as Publications of the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago. These are practical and usable accounts of the curriculums and teaching methods actually employed in the University Elementary School and the University High School. A new title has just appeared in this series, *Mathematics Instruction in the University High School* by Members of the Department of Mathematics, which discusses the general objectives of mathematics and the specific aims of the different courses in relation to correlating courses in mathematics and describes in detail the teaching procedures in selected units. The price of this monograph is \$1.00.

A monograph on *Instruction in English in the University High School*, written by Harold A. Anderson, Babette K. Lemon, Marguerite E. Schuler, and Edith E. Shepherd, has been announced for publication in March, 1941. This volume will present a prospectus of the forty-seven units which constitute the English curriculum; will describe the content, organization, and methods of instruction in several representative units; and will indicate procedures for unifying instruction in the various phases of English and for correlating English with other subjects. The price of this monograph will be

\$1.75. A pre-publication price of \$1.35 is being offered to persons who order and *pay for* the monograph before March 1, 1941.

Orders for either of these publications may be sent to the Department of Education, University of Chicago, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

PUPILS' QUESTIONS

IN THE article "The Teachers Out-talk the Pupils," which appeared in the December number of the *School Review*, reference was made to the doctoral dissertation presented at the University of Wisconsin by George L. Fahey. This thesis, which carries the title "A Study of the Classroom Questions of High-School Pupils and the Relation between Questioning Activity and Various Other Factors of Educational Significance," reports in detail the oral questioning activity of 169 junior and senior high school pupils during the course of one academic year. Six classes were involved. During the year some thirty-nine thousand teacher and pupil questions were recorded. The pupils altogether asked four thousand questions. One teacher alone asked twelve thousand.

Part of the author's conclusions from the whole investigation were: (1) Pupils ask relatively few questions in the high-school classes studied, averaging less than one question a week. (2) A small group of pupils ask a relatively large number of questions. These children, however, deviate little from their classmates in interests, intelligence, or ability to make inferences or interpret data. (3) The categorizing of pupil questions into types (thought questions, fact questions, etc.) is a difficult task, and, when completed, the classification bears little relation to pupil interest or intelligence. (4) There are wide variations from class to class in the number of pupil questions elicited by the teachers involved. (5) Boys ask more questions than girls when groups are compared. (6) Teachers agree rather consistently when they infer the complexity of a pupil's thought-processes from the questions that he asks. (7) If the question is important in the thinking process and if the person who is doing the thinking should ask the questions, then pupils need to have much assistance in the development of good habits of questioning.

STEPHEN M. COREY

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

THE innovations which are being reported to our readers this month, although few in number, are illustrative of the variety of experimental procedures being introduced by principals, teachers, and pupils in progressive high schools throughout the country. A superintendent presents his compilation of administrative instructions pertaining to the secondary schools of his city; a commercial teacher describes an experiment in teaching spelling; and a pupil explains the plan and purposes of a speakers' bureau manned by the public-speaking class of a small-town high school.

Manual of instructions to high-school principals For the convenience of the principals of the high school and the vocational school of McKeesport, Pennsylvania, Superintendent James H. Lawson has provided a handbook, of seventy mimeographed pages, entitled "General Administrative Instructions for Secondary Schools." The volume is adequately indexed, presents the school calendar for the scholastic year, and includes the forms for reports to be made by principals and teachers. The specific responsibilities of each administrative and supervisory officer in the secondary schools are listed seriatim. Rules governing the admission, attendance, conduct, and activities of pupils are clearly stated. The procedures prescribed for fire drills, the requisitioning of supplies, and the use of the library are explained. One section of the instructions includes suggestions regarding desirable procedures in teaching such subjects as shorthand, algebra, and biology. Superintendent Lawson generously offers to send a copy of this handbook to interested readers of the *School Review* who request it.

Using the dictionary in the teaching of spelling A commercial teacher in the Technical High School in Omaha, Nebraska, Mary Walrath Jenkins, credits one of her colleagues with an ingenious method of achieving the objectives of spelling instruction for commercial pupils. Cecilia Faun Nichols, of South High School in the same city, conducts her business spelling classes as a word-study course, with "word consciousness" as the main objective. The dictionary is the textbook.

In the course of the semester each pupil finds twenty-five or more words each of French, Latin, and Greek derivation. He also gathers a list of words of miscellaneous derivation. He then makes a chart of each of these lists, which shows the stem, the meaning of the foreign word, the English word, and the meaning of the English word as given by the dictionary. This bit of research brings to the pupil's attention just how words are built, as well as their spelling and meaning. Lists of words are given to the pupil that he may fill in the diacritical marks. The average pupil, before receiving this instruction, has no idea what the marks in the dictionary mean and is little better prepared to use a word after having looked it up than he was before.

A scrapbook is kept by each pupil. He gathers clippings, jokes, puns, and cartoons which in any manner pertain to the spelling, meaning, or origin of words. Each day Miss Nichols writes on the board a short paragraph that deals with some interesting bit of the history of our language. The pupils copy these articles in their books. Lists of words are given to the pupils to be learned for periodic written tests, but the words are chosen from materials so presented that the word becomes a concept to the pupil and not merely a series of letters to be learned in the proper sequence. The enthusiasm has grown so great that a social club has been formed, called the Etymology Club. It is purely a social club, in which the pupils carry on the work with their scrapbooks and their study of words.

A public-speaking class opens a speakers' bureau The November issue of *Student Life* carries the letter of a Paola, Kansas, high-school pupil who is reporting the plan developed by her teacher to motivate and to enrich the learning experiences of the public-speaking class. For the final examination of the first semester, the pupils prepared speeches to be delivered before the class. The topics chosen covered a variety of educational and social interests, such as athletics, vocations, war, and politics. Then an announcement was printed in the local newspapers and in the *High School Reporter* that community groups desiring a speaker on any of the subjects enumerated might apply to the high-school speakers' bureau. By the end of the year, half the class had served as speakers at meetings of various local organizations.

The pupil who has reported this enterprise is Maxine Viets, a Senior in the commercial department of the Paola High School. Principals as well as teachers of public speaking will be interested in reading Miss Viets's letter, and they will be certain to recognize the public-relations value of the Paola type of speakers' bureau.

WHO'S WHO FOR JANUARY

Writer of the news notes and authors of articles in the current number STEPHEN M. COREY, professor of educational psychology and superintendent of the Laboratory Schools at the University of Chicago. DONALD E. SUPER, assistant professor of educational psychology at Clark University. ROBERT D. WRIGHT, dean of boys at Lancaster High School, Lancaster, New York. VERNON E. ANDERSON, assistant in education at the University of Colorado; formerly dean of the Worthington Junior College, Worthington, Minnesota. GLENN MYERS BLAIR, associate in education at the University of Illinois. RAY G. PRICE, assistant professor of business education at the University of Cincinnati. HAROLD M. BENSON, instructor in business education at Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. DOROTHY LEGGITT, teacher of social science, art, and penmanship at Wydown School, Clayton, Missouri. CLYDE W. TAYLOR, student counselor at North Phoenix High School, Phoenix, Arizona. LEONARD V. KOOS, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago.

The writers of reviews in the current number R. E. KEOHANE, instructor in the social sciences and adviser in the Four Year College at the University of Chicago. E. R. BRESLICH, associate professor emeritus of the teaching of mathematics at the University of Chicago. ROBERT L. MCCAUL, instructor in remedial reading in the College at the University of Chicago. FRANK J. KOBLE, research assistant, Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, Chicago, Illinois. CYRIL O. HOULE, instructor in education and political science at the University of Chicago.

FROM SCHOOL TO WORK IN THE DEPRESSION YEARS. I

DONALD E. SUPER
Clark University

ROBERT D. WRIGHT
Lancaster High School, Lancaster, New York

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THE problems of the transition from high school to college have for many years been a subject of investigation, and much interest has been centered on determining something about them. Another transition, that from school to work, has commanded less attention although it concerns a much larger percentage of the population. That interest in the problems of the latter transition is growing is evidenced by increasing numbers of follow-up studies reported in educational journals and in the daily press.

Most follow-up studies of pupils graduating from or leaving school have not, however, been as revealing as might be expected. They have reported the percentages of former pupils who are employed and unemployed and have given information on the nature of their employment—and have usually stopped there. A few studies have gone further. Among those most worthy of mention are the study made by Eckert and Marshall¹ for the Regents' Inquiry, the Maryland survey made by the American Youth Commission,² that by Dearborn and Rothney at Harvard,³ and the studies of Harvard

¹ Ruth E. Eckert and Thomas O. Marshall, *When Youth Leave School*. The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939.

² Howard M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story*. A Study of the Conditions and Attitudes of Young People in Maryland between the Ages of 16 and 24. Conducted for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938.

³ Walter F. Dearborn and John W. M. Rothney, *Scholastic, Economic, and Social Backgrounds of Unemployed Youth*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1938.

graduates now being made by Moyer.¹ These investigations are worthy of note because they have attempted to get at the dynamics of the transition problems by relating various types of background information to what happened to the graduates and by obtaining detailed information concerning the difficulties faced in making adjustments to the world of work.

Another type of approach is that used in studies of occupational mobility and job satisfaction, in which occupational histories have been used to determine lines of promotion and development and to relate such factors to satisfaction in one's work. In this area the studies by Davidson and Anderson,² by Hoppock,³ and by Super⁴ might be mentioned.

In line with these more dynamic pictures of the transition from school to work, the present writers introduced into a follow-up study of the graduates of a small-town high school in upstate New York some elements which should be of general interest.

PROBLEM

In a period like the present, when many youths who leave school remain unemployed for some time and when fewer worth-while opportunities seem to be open to them, educators and counselors more than ever need an answer to the broad question: What happens to young people when they graduate from school? The question, however, needs to be refined. We must know the duration and frequency of periods of unemployment, the relation of background factors to getting a job, the types of jobs that are obtained, the rapidity and extent of promotions, the effect of unemployment on getting a job, and the effect of all these experiences on vocational plans and ambitions. As the Regents' Inquiry and the Harvard studies, already referred to, have intensively explored the role of school histories and

¹ Donald H. Moyer, "Advice from Apprentices," *Occupations*, XVIII (March, 1940), 411-16.

² Percy E. Davidson and H. Dewey Anderson, assisted by Karl Shlaudeman, *Occupational Mobility in an American Community*. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1937.

³ Robert Hoppock, *Job Satisfaction*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1935.

⁴ Donald E. Super, "Occupational Level and Job Satisfaction," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXIII (October, 1939), 547-69.

mental equipment in problems such as these, the material presented here will deal with other factors, especially with the effect of the depression on the transition from school to work.

METHOD OF THE STUDY

A four-page questionnaire, covering the graduate's employment history, use of leisure, and education after leaving high school, was drawn up and tried out on a small group of graduates of Lancaster High School. The questionnaire was then revised and mailed with a covering letter to all the graduates of the classes of 1928 and 1929, 1933, and 1935. These classes were chosen in order to include a group graduated before the effect of the depression had begun to be felt, a group graduated at the depth of the depression, and a group graduated after some improvement had begun to manifest itself. There were 58 pupils in the first two classes combined and 59 in each of the others, a total of 176 graduates. Of these, only 170 could be located. Usable replies were received from 85, or 48 per cent, of the total group—27, 29, and 29 from the three periods, respectively. The sex, courses pursued in high school, marks obtained, and places of residence of graduates who replied were compared with those of the non-respondents by means of school and alumni records, and no significant differences were found. It was concluded, therefore, that the respondents were typical of the classes as a whole in these fundamental respects and, therefore, probably in other characteristics.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

The employment status of the respondents in April, 1939, the time of the filling-out of the questionnaire, is shown in Table 1. As would be expected, none of the pre-depression group and few of the 1933 graduates were in school or college. Of the latter group, more girls were still students—a fact which suggests that their further education may have been longer delayed than was that of the boys. The data for the class of 1935, whose college-bound students should have been about to graduate, also show a greater tendency for boys than for girls to continue their education.

No graduates of the classes of 1928-29 or 1935 were working on relief projects, but 3 per cent of the 1933 graduates were on relief

jobs. That some of those who were launched at the worst of the depression were still adrift in 1939—a "lost generation"—is substantiated, as it needs to be with such small numbers, by the fact

TABLE 1
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION, ACCORDING TO EMPLOYMENT STATUS
OF HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES OF THREE PERIODS

	PERCENTAGE OF CLASSES OF 1928-29			PERCENTAGE OF CLASS OF 1933			PERCENTAGE OF CLASS OF 1935		
	Men (11)	Women (16)	Both (27)	Men (15)	Women (14)	Both (20)	Men (17)	Women (12)	Both (20)
Status in April, 1939:									
Working full time..	100	69	81	67	64	66	65	67	66
Working part time..		6	4	13		7			
Working on relief..				7		3			
Homemakers..		25	15		14	7		25	10
Students..				13	22	17	29		17
Unemployed..							6	8	7
Total.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Totally unemployed since graduation:									
None of time.....	91	62	74	40	79	59	59	67	62
None to one-fourth of time.....	9	38	26	53	14	34	29	25	28
One-fourth to one- half of time.....				7	7	7	12	8	10
Total.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Partially employed since graduation:									
None of time.....	82	69	74	73	71	73	82	83	83
None to one-fourth of time.....		19	11	27	22	24	18	17	17
One-fourth to one- half of time.....	18	12	15		7	3			
Total.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

that part-time employment was most common among the 1933 graduates and nonexistent among those of 1935. There were no unemployed among the 1928-29 or the 1933 groups; the latter were being provided for, at least in a makeshift way (by relief and part-time work for those not fully employed). That 7 per cent of the 1935 graduates were still unemployed suggests the existence of a lag before

absorption into employment—a hypothesis which is confirmed by data presented later. All the pre-depression men graduates and more than two-thirds of the women graduates were fully employed, while roughly two-thirds of the members of each of the other classes were fully employed. A fourth of the pre-depression and post-depression girl graduates were homemakers, but only a seventh of the depression girl graduates. This finding also suggests that those who during the worst of the depression should have been getting established either in vocations or in marriage were more handicapped than were those who came before or after them.

In order that the extent of unemployment might be determined for the pupils graduating in the different years, the total amount of time that each person had been totally or partially employed since graduation was calculated. Table 1 shows, as in the previous comparison, that the pre-depression graduates were most favored, 74 per cent having experienced no total unemployment up to the time the data were gathered. The 1933 graduates were least fortunate, and the 1935 graduates fell in between. The same trend is revealed in the next row of figures, more 1933 graduates having been unemployed up to a fourth of the time since graduation. That more 1935 graduates had been unemployed from a fourth to a half of the time since graduation is probably due to the fact that they had not yet come through what Davidson and Anderson, in their study, called the "floundering period."¹ None of the subjects had been totally or partially unemployed for more than half the time that had elapsed since graduation; that is, all had been fortunate enough to obtain some kind of employment during at least half of that period of from four to eleven years, however insignificant the work might have been for vocational training or for earning purposes. In the pre-depression group the male graduates were more fortunate than were the female, 91 per cent of the men as opposed to 62 per cent of the women having known no periods of total unemployment. In the depression and the post-depression groups, however, the women experienced less total unemployment than did the men, perhaps because of opportunities in the home. No special trends are revealed

¹ Percy E. Davidson and H. Dewey Anderson, assisted by Karl Shlaudeman, *op. cit.*, p. 39.

by the data on partial employment, other than those already mentioned, except that the proportion of those partially unemployed for one-fourth to one-half of the time was larger in the pre-depression group, probably because these graduates were affected by the stagger system when the others were totally unemployed.

Two groups of pupils, one of which had been continuously employed since graduation, the other having been unemployed frequently or over a long period, were selected for comparison on certain background traits. Table 2 analyzes these two groups according

TABLE 2
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION, ACCORDING TO HIGH-SCHOOL COURSE, OF THIRTY GRADUATES CONTINUOUSLY EMPLOYED AND THIRTY GRADUATES LARGELY UNEMPLOYED SINCE LEAVING SCHOOL

High-School Course	Percentage of Employed Graduates	Percentage of Unemployed Graduates
Academic.....	43	10
College-preparatory.....	37	16
Commercial.....	13	47
General.....	7	27
Total.....	100	100

to high-school course and shows that 80 per cent of the constantly employed group had been in the college-entrance and academic courses, whereas 74 per cent of the largely unemployed group were graduates of the commercial and general courses. These data suggest that both intelligence and socio-economic status play important parts in securing employment, in view of the fact that little vocational training is involved (except perhaps in the commercial course) and the further fact that these factors are known to operate in the selection of courses.

Unfortunately intelligence-test data were not available for most of the graduates, but socio-economic status is analyzed in Table 3. The data show that 97 per cent of the constantly employed group were employed at the professional, managerial-proprietary, and com-

mercial levels, according to the Edwards occupational scale,¹ and that only 68 per cent of the group which had experienced a great deal of unemployment were employed at these levels at the time of the study, most of them at the lowest of these three levels. This finding indicates largely that employment is more secure at the upper levels, but it may not prove any relation between original

TABLE 3

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION, ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF GRADUATES AND OF FATHERS, OF HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES CONTINUOUSLY EMPLOYED AND GRADUATES LARGELY UNEMPLOYED SINCE LEAVING SCHOOL

CLASSIFICATION	PERCENTAGE OF GRADUATES		PERCENTAGE OF FATHERS	
	Employed Graduates (28)	Unemployed Graduates (28)	Employed Graduates (25)	Unemployed Graduates (25)
I. Professional.....	44	14	16	4
II. Managerial-proprietary.....	21	4	8	4
III. Commercial.....	32	50	24	8
IV. Skilled.....	7	40	56
V. Semi-skilled.....	3	11	8	16
VI. Unskilled.....	14	4	12
Total.....	100	100	100	100

occupational level and success in securing employment. Table 3 completes this analysis by showing that most of the fathers of the employed group were from the commercial and skilled levels (64 per cent), whereas the majority of the fathers of the unemployed group were from the three lowest levels (84 per cent). It is clear, then, that intelligence, parental socio-economic status, high-school course, and the person's own occupational level, in the case of the graduates of Lancaster High School, are important in obtaining employment and in remaining regularly employed.

¹ Alba M. Edwards, "A Social-economic Grouping of the Gainful Workers of the United States," *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, XXVIII (December, 1933), 377-87.

OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY

In order that some idea might be obtained of the progress made by graduates in the occupational world, their first post-school em-

TABLE 4

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES OF THREE PERIODS
ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF FIRST EMPLOYMENT
AFTER GRADUATION AND OF EMPLOYMENT IN APRIL, 1939

	PERCENTAGE OF CLASSES OF 1928-29			PERCENTAGE OF CLASS OF 1933			PERCENTAGE OF CLASS OF 1935		
	Men (11)	Women (16)	Both (27)	Men (15)	Women (14)	Both (29)	Men (17)	Women (12)	Both (29)
First employment after graduation:									
I. Professional...	37	44	41	7		3			
II. Managerial-proprietary...	18	19	19	13	21	17			
III. Commercial...	36	12	22	7	22	14	24	93	52
IV. Skilled...		13	7				6		3
V. Semi-skilled...		6	4	13	14	14	29		17
VI. Unskilled...				47	14	31	18	7	14
Incomplete information...	9	6	7	13	29	21	23		14
Total.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Employment in April, 1939:									
I. Professional...	64	38	48	27		14			
II. Managerial-proprietary...	9	19	15		21	10			
III. Commercial...	27	12	18	20	29	24	41	67	52
IV. Skilled...		6	4	20		10	6		4
V. Semi-skilled...				7		4	18		10
VI. Unskilled...				13	14	14			
Homemakers...		25	15		15	7		25	10
Students...				13	21	17	29		17
Unemployed...							6	8	7
Total.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

ploysments were tabulated, together with their occupations at the time of the study. These data, classified according to the Edwards scale, are presented in Table 4 and are compared in Table 5.

The first conclusion to be drawn from Table 4 is that the majority of the pre-depression group were successful in finding their initial

employment in the upper half of the occupational scale, the boys being more successful in starting high than were the girls. The depression class fared quite differently, at least 60 per cent of the boys and 28 per cent of the girls obtaining their first employment at the semi-skilled and unskilled levels, and 21 per cent of the total group giving no information on this point as opposed to only 7 per cent in the first group of graduates. This time the girls did better than the boys, 43 per cent as opposed to 27 per cent starting out in the upper half of the scale. None of the post-depression group started

TABLE 5
CHANGE IN OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL SINCE GRADUATION

	CLASSES OF 1928-29			CLASS OF 1933			CLASS OF 1935		
	Men	Wom- en	Both	Men	Wom- en	Both	Men	Wom- en	Both
Number of cases not changing category.	7	10	17	2	8	10	4	8	12
Number of cases changing category.	3	2	5	11	1	12	6	6
Total.....	10	12	22	13	9	22	10	8	18
Net change in steps..	+ 3	+ 5	+ 8	+19	+3	+22	+10	+10
Average number of steps of change...	+ 0.3	+ 0.4	+ 0.4	+ 1.4	+0.3	+ 1.0	+ 1.0	+ 0.5

out at the professional or managerial-proprietary levels, no doubt because those who would do so were still in college at the time of the study, slightly less than four years after they had left high school. On the other hand, 24 per cent of the boys and 93 per cent of the girls began at the commercial level—an improvement over 1933. The unusually large percentage of 1935 girls employed at the commercial level is probably to be explained by the postponement of higher education for this group, already shown, and by occupational changes, for Lancaster is more and more becoming a suburb of Buffalo.

The general nature of the trends in the occupational levels reached by the subjects of this study at the time the data were gathered is similar to that of their initial employment, already discussed.

In Table 5 the data of Table 4 are compared to show the occupational progress made by these individuals since graduation from high school. Less than a fourth of the pre-depression graduates had changed occupational level during the ten or eleven years since graduation, the average change being four-tenths of a step up in the scale. More than half the depression graduates had changed occupational levels, moving up one step on the average. The post-depression graduates had changed levels in a third of the cases, by an average of half a step. This situation is as would have been expected; the first group started high and remained there except as some moved up; the second group, starting with an initial handicap, moved up to compensate for their low start; and the third group changed less because they were less handicapped by the depression. In the depression and the post-depression years the girls, apparently, were more handicapped than were the boys. The depression has meant, for these women at least, limitation of opportunity in the first few years of work.

[To be concluded]

A COMMUNITY GUIDANCE CONFERENCE ON AN AREA BASIS

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*

IN THE past, expert guidance services have been more or less limited to the larger centers and, in the main, have been under the sponsorship of the school. It is not at all impossible that, by banding together, several smaller schools might provide such a service. Civic organizations and service clubs are interested in the field of guidance and are usually eager to assist the school in its efforts. In the present-day emphasis on unemployment of youth, little mention seems to be made of effective counseling as a contributory means to the solution of the problem. There is no reason why the community cannot work with the school to furnish the advantages of counseling to young people outside the school as well as to those in school. Moreover, communities within an area can, through co-operation, provide an even better organization than can be individually supported.

Schools have co-operated in so-called "college days," when the colleges sent representatives to a central point for discussing the ins and outs of college training. The weakness in this procedure is that too much emphasis is given to the already oversold idea that all young people should have a college education. Colleges, instead of being leaders in promoting good guidance principles, have served to emphasize that idea through the promotion of their own schools at these special days.

An experiment in a new type of conference for promoting more adequate guidance for the young people of its community was inaugurated by the Worthington Community Guidance Council in Worthington, Minnesota. This plan, in which adults and pupils work together in discussing counseling problems, had no direct precedent. All community forces, besides securing the co-operation of surrounding areas, joined in supporting the plan.

The Worthington Community Guidance Council was formed in the spring of 1939 with the object of co-ordinating all available guidance services in the community and fostering the co-operation of all agencies that included the guidance of young people as one of their purposes or interests. With the school and the Kiwanis Club taking the lead in promoting the council, ten other community organizations joined in appointing representatives to form an executive board: the Community Club, the American Association of University Women, the Business and Professional Women's Club, the Board of Public Welfare, the American Legion, the American Legion Auxiliary, the Civic and Commerce Association, the Agricultural Extension Service, the State Employment Service, and the Nobles County Ministerial Association.

During the summer of 1939 the newly organized council sponsored a community survey of the youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four. The findings indicated that there were in the community 528 young persons within this age group, of whom 9 per cent were unemployed and 5 per cent were unsatisfactorily employed. The rest either were in school or were employed on fairly secure jobs.

In the autumn plans were begun for a community guidance conference, which was to include all youth in and out of school, as well as adults. Eighteen surrounding towns were invited, through their schools, to participate in the conference and to share in the expense of holding it. Three communities—Lakefield, Brewster, and Chandler—accepted the invitation. Thus twelve Worthington organizations and three outside communities served as sponsors.

It is generally held that, in a one-day conference organized on the group basis, little effective individual counseling can be given. However, there are certain aims that can be accomplished. The sponsors of the conference had in mind the following objectives: (1) to focus the attention of the community on the guidance of its young people; (2) to raise questions in the minds of the youths and to allow them to discuss these problems in a group; (3) to give information on the procedures for selecting an occupation; (4) to call attention to the counseling services available in the community; (5) to promote better guidance facilities for the area in the future; (6) to assist adults

to fit themselves to render a better service to the young people of the community; and (7) to give an opportunity for the young people to discuss their own problems with trained counselors.

Most group meetings of this type have been sponsored by a single school and have planned the discussions around various types of occupations. It was felt that little could be accomplished in one day by the use of this method since few of the occupations in any given category could be touched upon in such a brief period of time. Rather, as an experiment, the theme chosen for the meetings was the broad area of methods of choosing an occupation and fallacies involved in the process. The group conferences were divided into four general problems for discussion: vocational problems of men, vocational problems of women, educational problems, and recreational problems.

In order that mature opinions from various walks of life might be obtained, an effort was made by the council to secure adult participation. Invitations to their organizations were extended by the members of the Community Guidance Council. Special invitations were sent to selected leaders in the community. Others were extended a general invitation through articles in the local newspaper. The Kiwanis Club invited similar clubs in nearby communities to send representatives.

To head up the conference, Milton E. Hahn, co-ordinator of vocational orientation of the General College of the University of Minnesota, was asked to serve as the main counselor. He was assisted by four other counselors from the University. For the group conferences, chairmen were chosen from the communities represented. In two groups the superintendents of two of the public schools served as chairmen. From Worthington the head of the employment service, the judge of the probate court, two business executives, and a business woman were chosen for this task. Other school and community workers assisted the counselors in the individual conferences.

For carrying out the objectives of the conference, the meetings were organized in four divisions. In the morning at the school auditorium, Mr. Hahn addressed the entire participating group on the topic "The Problems of Vocational Choice." He outlined the broad

areas involved in choosing an occupation, called attention to stumbling blocks to a logical choice, and explained the day's procedure. This session was aimed mainly at setting the stage for the group meetings and at suggesting problems which might be discussed.

The afternoon group conferences were arranged around the four general areas mentioned. To introduce the discussion, the chairman of each section outlined for ten minutes the problems involved in the topic of the meeting. The discussion was then thrown open to the group, the first period being limited to young people and the last half-hour being open to adults as well. In each group the consultant assisted the chairman in answering questions put by the group. As the four group conferences were repeated, one hour being allotted for each set, participation in more than one discussion was possible. Rooms at the school were assigned beforehand to each group, and pupils at the school were asked to indicate which conference they planned to attend. Instructors were also asked to discuss the meetings with their pupils in order to prepare them to participate intelligently. Individual conferences following the group meetings gave opportunity for discussion of personal problems with the counselors and members of the community and the school.

The Community Guidance Council, the school instructors, and other adults met with the counselors at an informal dinner as the final session of the day for the purpose of reviewing the day's activities and suggesting improvements. This meeting presented an opportunity for discussion of the obligations of the community in assisting in guidance work of its youth and for descriptions of communities co-operating further in this work.

Keen interest, indicated by a good attendance at the various sessions, was manifested in the conference. The Senior class of the Worthington High School, all the students of the Worthington Junior College, the Senior class of the Brewster High School, the co-ordinating group from the Lakefield High School, and some of the Senior class from Chandler High School were present. Together with a few out-of-school youth, the group of young persons totaled 175. In addition, the attendance of fifty adults at the conferences was gratifying to the sponsors. Attendance at the group conferences was as follows: vocational problems of men, 50 and 58; vocational problems of women, 76 and 33; educational problems, 59 and 81; recrea-

tional problems, 45 and 68. A large group spent an additional hour or two with the counselors after the group conferences had closed.

The reactions to the conference as expressed by adults and pupils give some basis for evaluation. Whatever opinions it has been possible to gather are given here. Some light on the question of whether any of the objectives have been accomplished can be secured from these statements.

On a questionnaire administered to a random sampling of Worthington Junior College students, twenty-eight, out of the thirty from whom reactions were received, stated that they found the conference helpful, none felt that they got nothing of value from it, and twenty-nine said that the conference set them thinking more about their future. In listing the type of help received, twenty-one said that they had received assistance in the choice of a vocation; ten had learned about employment opportunities and registration; and others had found the conference helpful in job-getting, in presenting a challenge, and in bringing forth the need for more recreational facilities. Typical statements given in answer to this question were: "Made one want to know more about a profession before entering it"; "One cannot be too sure of vocation he chooses"; "I have more confidence in choosing a life-occupation."

Most of the pupils felt that the conference had set them to thinking more seriously about their problems of vocational choice. Adverse criticisms mainly stressed the need for more time at the group conferences, hesitancy of some participants to enter into the discussion, and lack of preparation for the conferences on the part of the pupils.

Other comments stressed the need of putting more emphasis on problems for pupils not going on to school. A conscious attempt had been made to place a major emphasis on such problems, but the pupils who were going on to school seemed to take the lead in the discussions and turn the trend in the direction of their interests.

The adult reaction at the evaluation meeting centered in the hope that the movement launched by the communities co-operating in this conference would eventually result in an area guidance service, with a definite organization headed by an area counselor. Communities, by pooling their resources, could secure expert all-year service at a low cost.

REMEDIAL-READING PROGRAMS IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

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*

ONE of the most pressing problems facing high schools today is that of knowing what to do with the large number of pupils who reach this educational level without a satisfactory foundation in reading. In order to discover outstanding remedial programs that are already in operation, the writer conducted, during the spring of 1940, a nation-wide survey of remedial teaching in senior high schools. Personal letters were sent to the 1,090 principals of public high schools in the United States which are located in cities with populations of twenty thousand or more. The purpose of this article is to present the answers which the schools gave to one of the questions asked: "What do you do with pupils in your high school who are unusually poor in reading ability?"

Three hundred and seventy-nine high schools located in thirty-eight states and the District of Columbia replied to the letter and in most cases gave complete descriptions of their plans for dealing with retarded readers.

A distribution of the chief methods employed by these 379 high schools for taking care of their unusually poor readers is given in Table 1. It is obvious that the most widely used administrative procedure for assisting deficient readers is to organize special sections of English where emphasis is placed on the improvement of reading. Another method commonly used is for the English teachers to attempt to carry on remedial work in connection with the activities of the regular class. It is clear that the brunt of the teaching of remedial reading falls to the teachers of English.

SCHOOLS DOING NOTHING OR VERY LITTLE

Table 1 shows that seventy-five of the schools are doing nothing specific, or at least very little, for their retarded readers. These

schools either make statements directly to that effect, or it is clear from the context of their letters that such is the case. The great majority of these schools, although admitting that they are doing little at present for pupils of poor reading ability, nevertheless state

TABLE 1

CHIEF PROCEDURES EMPLOYED BY 379 HIGH SCHOOLS FOR MINISTERING TO PUPILS WITH SEVERE READING HANDICAPS

Method Followed	Number of Schools
Do nothing or very little.....	75
Responsibility placed on teachers.....	26
Responsibility carried by English teachers in regular classes	34
Provide special sections of English and classes in remedial reading.....	198
Provide specialist who coaches individuals or small groups	28
Other methods.....	9
Method not definitely stated.....	9
Total.....	379

that plans are under consideration for caring for this problem in the near future. Following are a few typical quotations from these letters.

We are beginning our approach to more definite work in this field now. Our teaching group is doing much reading in preparation for attack on this problem.

We recognize this as being one of our No. 1 problems.

We do not have remedial-reading classes, although we hope to establish them next year.

We are seriously considering the introduction of a course in reading.

Many more such statements could be included. Those schools not having remedial-reading programs are practically unanimous in expressing their interest in such work and in indicating their hope that it will soon be initiated in their schools.

RESPONSIBILITY PLACED ON TEACHERS

Twenty-six schools report that certain remedial work in reading is being done but that there is no definite plan. Instead, the teachers do what they can in whatever way they see fit. In most of these cases the principals expressed dissatisfaction with this method and hoped

that they would be able to do something more specific in the future. The following is typical of the remarks of such principals.

I regret that we are unable at present to undertake this most necessary work. Classroom teachers do, of course, recognize deficiencies in the various tool subjects, and, as far as possible, do remedial work; but we have no recognized procedure for this sort of thing.

RESPONSIBILITY CARRIED BY ENGLISH TEACHERS IN REGULAR CLASSES

Those schools which do not employ any method of segregation of pupils according to ability or achievement expect that cases of severe retardation in reading will be handled by the teachers of English in connection with the regular work of the class. Thirty-four schools included in this survey indicate that this method is used in handling the "reading problem." The following direct statements from the communications of these schools illustrate their point of view and methods of procedure.

We try to correct our reading through the regular English classes. Our remedial work is not adequate, but we try to correct these difficulties as much as possible through supervised study.

Teachers of English give personal counsel and require less difficult collateral reading.

While the better readers are continuing with the *Idylls of the King*, the slow readers are using *Roads to Reading*.¹

Detailed descriptions of the programs in effect in two of the reporting schools follow.

Sumner High School, St. Louis.—This school, which has an enrolment of 1,380 pupils, reports that all remedial instruction in English, exclusive of speech correction, is carried on in the regular English classes. As part of the regular classroom work, the following provisions are made for pupils who are unusually poor in reading ability: (1) Easier reading material is provided. (2) Assignments are varied so that the quantity and the quality of reading required is suited to the individual needs. (3) In study assignments, individual help is given to those who need it. (4) Free-reading periods are scheduled regularly, during which the pupils are encouraged to satisfy interests at their own reading levels.

Phoenix Union High School, Phoenix, Arizona.—At Phoenix Union High School the basis of the program is wide reading by all pupils, of whatever ability,

¹ Reba G. Mack, William A. McCall, and John C. Almack, *Roads to Reading*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1937.

in all the ninth-grade English classes. Under the guidance of the teachers the pupils choose the books which they wish to read. Each pupil is urged to select books which deal with subject matter of interest to him and which seem to be on his level of reading ability. From this start the teacher seeks to guide the child into reading on an increasingly mature level. There is no microscopic analysis of selections known as "classics." The general testing program consists in the administration of one or two reading tests to all ninth-grade pupils in September and again in May. The September tests are used for diagnosis and prognosis, and the May tests indicate what progress has been made in the teaching and learning during the year. The Phoenix program is a definite attempt to improve the reading ability of all pupils through a class teaching program supplemented by whatever individual counseling time permits. The school supplements its regular program by having the most deficient readers receive additional attention from a teacher who is a specialist and is in charge of the reading laboratory.

Although much good work can be accomplished by capable teachers using the regular classroom method, it is apparent that great difficulties are encountered when teachers are called on to minister to the needs of children who often range in reading ability from third-grade to twelfth-grade level. As a rule this method of providing for pupils who are *unusually retarded* in reading ability is somewhat unsatisfactory unless it is supplemented by other methods. The average teacher seldom has the time or the special training required for dealing with the more serious cases. Those schools which provide for all levels of reading ability in the regular English classes find that the "free reading period" is a most essential part of the program.

SPECIAL SECTIONS OF ENGLISH AND CLASSES IN REMEDIAL READING

By far the most widely used method of providing specific remedial instruction in reading is the provision of special sections in English and classes in remedial reading.¹ Pupils who have been found to be deficient in reading ability are sectioned to these classes, where a deliberate and planned program for remedying the deficiencies is

¹ Many schools referred to their special reading improvement classes as "classes in remedial reading." It was clear from the context of the replies, however, that in practically all cases these were, in reality, special English sections. They have, therefore, been grouped in this discussion with those classes specifically designated as "special sections of English."

carried out. Frequently, English credit is given for the work. Pupils who show satisfactory progress are often returned to regular English classes after a semester or two. In some schools, however, they continue in some type of modified English course until they graduate. Frequently the pupils are unaware that they are in special sections of English because the sectioning is carried on in the office before the opening of school and is based on data secured in an earlier grade or school. In some schools these special sections are for pupils who are above average in mental ability but below average in reading achievement. In other schools these classes are primarily provided for children of general inferior ability. There are numerous variations. Schools which section their pupils to classes on the basis of intelligence quotients, especially intelligence quotients based on tests requiring reading, often find their classes to be grouped fairly homogeneously with respect to reading ability. In other schools pupils are placed in these special courses only when they have demonstrated inferior achievement on reading tests. Still other schools admit pupils to such classes primarily on the recommendation of teachers and employ few test data. Some of these classes devote practically their entire time to the improvement of reading, while others give attention to remedying other fundamental English handicaps as well.

In order that the reader may have more adequate descriptions of the methods that are followed in organizing and conducting these remedial-reading classes, several of the actual programs being used will be presented in brief form.

Reitz High School, Evansville, Indiana.—In this school with an enrolment of thirteen hundred, the English department has separate classes for those ninth-grade pupils who are poor in reading. The Iowa Silent Reading Test is given to all eighth-grade pupils shortly before they enter this high school, and, on the basis of their reading scores, the entrants are placed in either "regular" or "special" sections. Of about four hundred Freshmen who enter each autumn, enough poor readers are included to make two or three of these special classes, with about thirty in each class. The teacher of these classes reports that many of the pupils never realize that there is any distinction between their class and the "regular" classes. A description of what goes on in these special sections of English is given in the teacher's own words:

"My first objective is to convince every one of the youngsters that he really likes to read. Whenever anyone makes a statement to the contrary, I reply, 'That is only because you have never got hold of the right book or magazine.

You are interested in *something*, and there are fascinating things to read about that particular subject.²

"I try by every means to find out what those interests are. If the pupils do not tell me directly, I ask for a paragraph to be written in class on subjects such as these: 'What I Would Do with a Hundred Dollars,' 'What I Would Do Tomorrow if We Were Given a Holiday,' 'How I Would Like To Earn My Living if I Could Have the Necessary Training To Go into That Kind of Work.' After I have learned what the dominant interests of a pupil are, I make a great effort to get really attractive books dealing with those subjects, so that I myself may put them into the hands of the pupil. Every year I add a few such books to my own lending library, so that I can say to a reluctant reader, 'This is my own book; I believe you will like it. You may keep it as long as you wish.' We have a very good school library, but I often bring into my classroom thirty or more books from one of the city libraries. The pupils record on cards the names of the books they read. At the time when a book is being recorded, I chat informally with the pupil about his reaction to his reading. For reading aloud I use short plays because children really like them—whether they can read well or not."

Rufus King High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.—The principal sent the following request to each contributing elementary school in his area at the close of the school year in 1939: "Please list below the names of pupils who would benefit by being placed in an English class where special attention is given to the improvement of reading." Fifty-three of the 260 incoming pupils, about a fifth of the group, were recommended by the eighth-grade teachers, with the approval of the elementary-school principals. Because of conflict in individual schedules, only forty-eight of these pupils were able to enter the two classes which were formed. A basic reader, *Flying the Printways*,¹ was used for about three weeks at the outset. Each pupil became aware of his own difficulties and was ready to go to work surmounting them. In this frame of mind the classes began a study of the school library. Two films were shown to make the lessons more graphic, namely, "Found in a Book" and "Books from Manuscript to Classroom." One day a week thereafter, usually Friday, was spent in the library, when each pupil gathered information required in one or all of his other school subjects. Once a week the pupils had a "special-interest" day, when all had a chance to expand and discuss their interests. Throughout this course the pupils engaged in wide reading of interesting material at the level of difficulty that each could master. The course was such a success that the school hopes to expand the program to include ninth-grade pupils in the second semester, as well as those in the first semester.

Washington Irving High School, New York City.—The entering pupils in this school are given the Stanford Reading Test and are grouped in English classes according to reading ability. The slower groups have vocabulary drill one day

¹ Carol Hovious, *Flying the Printways*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938.

a week. Definite drill on roots, prefixes, and suffixes is part of this vocabulary-building program. During 1939-40 posters showing word derivations were placed in conspicuous positions as a part of the vocabulary campaign. One day a week the pupils work on study-type materials using one of the following textbooks: *Let's Read!*¹ *Reading for Skill*,² *Following Printed Trails*,³ and *Reading for Understanding*.⁴ Another day each week the group uses the metronoscope. This work is first motivated by showing each pupil his ophthalmograph film and explaining how it indicates his need for better reading habits. The teacher reports that pupils who have never shown any sign of concentration in school sit entranced before the metronoscope. A class discussion of the difficult words precedes the reading of each metronoscope roll. The roll is run twice, the second time at a higher rate of speed than at the first showing. A written test on the material follows the reading. Each week the speed is increased slightly. By the end of the term the pupils usually have attained the top speed of three hundred words a minute.

One day a week is devoted to a discussion of the books read outside of school. Since books of all types are accepted—mystery stories, novels, etc.—the pupils find, either in their class libraries or in the school or public library, books that interest them. Many of the poorest readers complete twenty books in a term. Opinion cards are provided on which each pupil records his reaction to the books that he reads.

To aid the teachers who will have these pupils in their second and third terms, the first-term teacher makes a file for each child, which contains the ophthalmograph records, reading-test records, metronoscope tests, opinion cards, records of interviews, and other pertinent data.

The school programs which have been briefly reviewed are similar in many respects to the other 195 programs which make special provision for their retarded readers by setting up special sections of English or remedial-reading classes. There are, however, certain unique features in almost every program reported. For example, the teacher of the remedial-reading class at the Camden (New Jersey) High School maintains in her classroom a small branch of the Camden Public Library, which supplies numerous books of special interest to the members of her group. In the remedial-reading class of Murphy High School, Mobile, Alabama, dictaphones are used advan-

¹ Holland Roberts and Helen Rand, *Let's Read!* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1937.

² Angela M. Broening, Frederick H. Law, Mary S. Wilkinson, and Caroline L. Ziegler, *Reading for Skill*. New York: Noble & Noble, Inc., 1936.

³ Carol Hovious, *Following Printed Trails*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1936.

⁴ Mabel A. Bessey and Isabelle P. Coffin, *Reading for Understanding*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1936.

tageously in motivating oral reading. At the Meriden (Connecticut) High School the remedial-reading work is not compulsory. Instead, pupils recommended for assistance are informed of the opportunity, and parents are notified in writing and asked whether they wish the pupil to have the work. Pupils in the Andrew Jackson High School, Los Angeles, California, who fall below the sixth-grade level in reading proficiency are placed in a reading-development room for one or two hours daily. The Central Senior High School, Muncie, Indiana, supplements the work of the remedial-reading class by having the most seriously retarded pupils receive individual help from selected graduate students of the Ball State Teachers College.

Christopher Columbus High School, New York City, reports that, in addition to the work of the remedial-reading classes, the most severely retarded readers receive special tutoring from a staff of teachers who are supplied by the Works Progress Administration and who serve under the direction of the regularly licensed teachers. This practice is also widely used in other New York City high schools. Western Hills High School, Cincinnati, Ohio, sends some of its most difficult cases to the reading clinic of the University of Cincinnati for diagnosis and remedial treatment. Forty copies of the *Portsmouth Daily Times* come regularly to the special English section at the Portsmouth (Ohio) High School. The pupils spend approximately thirty minutes a day reading this paper, which serves as the reading textbook for the course.

These illustrations show some of the diversity of practice that is found in schools using special remedial-reading classes as the chief method of caring for the needs of retarded readers.

METHODS IN SCHOOLS WITH SPECIALISTS WHO COACH INDIVIDUALS OR SMALL GROUPS

Twenty-eight senior high schools indicate that their chief method of caring for retarded readers consists in having a special teacher who works with individual cases or with small groups of pupils. Direct quotations from the replies of three of these schools follow.

Edwin Denby High School, Detroit, Michigan.—"Each semester we make a survey of our entering ninth-grade pupils. We obtain the reading age for each pupil and also the mental age. For the pupils whose reading age is two or more years below the mental age, we have worked out a remedial program.

These pupils are put in small groups for careful diagnostic study and remedial teaching. The number of these pupils each semester constitutes about 5 per cent of the entering ninth-grade pupils. The size of the group in which the remedial work is done is usually somewhere from five to ten pupils. The remedial work is done by a teacher who has had some training in clinical procedures as well as in reading."

Aliquippa (Pennsylvania) High School.—"We have a full-time remedial-reading teacher who works under the direction of the English department head. Those pupils below grade are given remedial instruction in groups of ten at regular periods each week. Our setup requires each pupil to take four major subjects meeting five times per week, minor subjects two periods per week, and physical training and health two periods per week. Our schedule difficulties in forming the small groups for remedial reading are met by taking the pupils out of one of their minor periods already scheduled."

George Washington High School, Alexandria, Virginia.—"We have a special teacher assigned during the activities period to take care of the corrective-reading work."

OTHER METHODS

Several schools reported procedures for assisting their deficient readers which could not be easily classified under any of the preceding headings. At the Abraham Lincoln High School, Los Angeles, California, the remedial reading is taught in connection with "Social Living" classes. These classes are organized according to intelligence quotient and reading ability. All pupils take "Social Living" classes, but special emphasis on the improvement of reading is given in those sections which contain the poorer readers. A graduating Senior, upon finishing four years of work, receives either a diploma or a certificate of completion. One of the requirements for a diploma is that the pupil must be able to read with tenth-grade proficiency or above. A pupil who fails to demonstrate this level of reading ability receives the certificate of completion.

Mirabeau B. Lamar Senior High School and Stephen F. Austin Senior High School, Houston, Texas, report carefully worked out plans for directing reading and study through laboratory reading classes. Pupils having difficulty with either social studies or English are assigned to one teacher, while pupils having difficulty with mathematics or science are assigned to a different teacher. Pupils from Grades IX and X and even Grade XI work together in these laboratory classes under the direction of the teacher. These classes are

regularly scheduled throughout the semester. The work of the course centers in a series of problems which the pupils, with the help of the teacher, try to solve. Each problem is stated as it appears to the individual pupil in the class. Some of these problems are as follows: (1) "Why Do I Have Difficulty in Doing My Regular Classroom Assignment?" (2) "How Can I Improve the Conditions under Which I Study?" (3) "How Can I Find Information in Books?" (4) "How Can I Find Books and Other Reading Materials in the Library?" (5) "What Is the First Step I Should Take in Trying To Improve My Reading and Study Habits?" (6) "How Can I Increase My Vocabulary?" After each pupil finds out what is wrong with his reading and his work habits, he immediately proceeds to develop new habits to take the place of the old.

Six of the reporting schools indicated that whatever remedial work they did was carried on before or after school hours. This method of scheduling remedial work is obviously a most unsatisfactory procedure. Any activity so important as learning to read should certainly find a place in the regular school program.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion it should be said that the ideal program for a given school should probably not consist entirely in any one of the methods described in this article. Instead, several of them should operate simultaneously. For example, all teachers, regardless of what subject they teach, should assist their poor readers in developing better reading techniques. Teachers of regular classes in English should do all they can to bring about improvement in reading on the part of their pupils. Furthermore, special sections of English or remedial-reading classes should, no doubt, be organized when there are large numbers of pupils who need basic training in reading and who have no chance of surviving in the regular classes. In addition to this provision, it would be desirable to have available a reading specialist or a thoroughly trained clinical psychologist who could diagnose and give help to the most obstinate or complicated cases.

THE PURPOSES OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

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BEFORE 1930 the purpose of business education in the secondary school was predominantly training for office positions. During the past ten years there has been evidence of a definite trend toward the inclusion of another desirable purpose, that is, social and economic business education to help the pupil adjust to the business world about him. Today business education has accepted the dual purposes of technical business training and social-economic business training.

These two broad purposes of business education are not necessarily competitive but are, in many respects, complementary. A ledger clerk who understands the relationships of business, the relations of one department within the business with another, the relation of his business with others, and the relation of business as an institution to society and government certainly will not be less efficient as a ledger clerk, and his effectiveness as a citizen will be increased.

NONTECHNICAL BUSINESS EDUCATION

Business education of a nontechnical character is designed to meet the needs of every member of our economic society. Socializing the already existing technical business subjects will not meet the pupils' need for an understanding and an appreciation of business as an economic activity. Other units of activity in social and economic business must be added to the curriculum if pupils are to discharge wisely their duties as citizens in this complex economic society. Pupils of high-school and upper elementary-school age feel and express their need for enlightenment in regard to the business world with which they come into daily contact in a variety of ways.

At present there is a noticeable trend toward this "real" business education, valuable to producer and consumer alike. The teacher of business subjects is beginning to recognize the importance of introducing the pupil to a study of economic and business organizations and his future role as a worker by making him aware of his present-day economic activities and identity with business. The pupil, instead of reading and learning abstractions and theoretical principles, should be looking at and experiencing the genuine realities of working out his own responsibilities as a citizen in our business and economic society. This participation in the economic affairs of a democracy at the pupil level would not be, to any large extent, participation as a producer, but every pupil might well be made aware of his present role as a consumer. The logical approach to the economic education of the pupil as producer and consumer is through his present-day consumer activities.

Now the interconnections between his prospective productive work and that of others, and their community of interest, reveal the importance of his consumption habits in a still stronger light. . . . How is it possible to market the inferior and superior together? What connection has this with the profit motive? What is the role of advertising? What are the human characteristics it appeals to? How does this process affect economic order and economic chaos? How have the role of the consumer and his impelling motives changed in the course of history? What is there to do? What are consumers' co-operatives, how do they operate, and how effective are they? What is the responsibility of the labor union in connection with the product and with the consumption of other products?¹

The use of the "consumer approach" to business and economic problems by teachers of business is contributing to the intelligence of pupils both as producers and as consumers. By relying on the present consumer interests and activities of the pupil, the teacher is able to make the material real and meaningful.

A record of accounts of expenditures of a group of thirty-five high-school pupils disclosed that they had at their disposal approxi-

¹ *Reorganizing Secondary Education*, pp. 253-54. Prepared by V. T. Thayer, Caroline B. Zachry, and Ruth Kotinsky for the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum. Progressive Education Association Publications. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1939.

mately five hundred dollars in cash over a two-week period.¹ At this age and before, these young people, through their actual everyday contacts with business, are forming certain habits of consumption. Should not the schools assist them in their real, present-day problems?

Emphasis on this general business objective will enhance the economic intelligence of the pupil and increase his value to society in his dual role of producer and consumer. To be an intelligent consumer of goods and services, the pupil must understand the social and economic aspects of production. For instance, an understanding and appreciation of how goods get from producer to consumer is valuable and beneficial to the pupil in his present status as a consumer as well as in his future function of producer.

The importance of this general area of economic training for intelligent consumption is recognized by the Educational Policies Commission in the following objectives for economic efficiency:

Personal economics.—The educated consumer plans the economics of his own life.

Consumer judgment.—The educated consumer develops standards for guiding his expenditures.

Efficiency in buying.—The educated consumer is an informed and skilful buyer.

Consumer protection.—The educated consumer takes appropriate measures to safeguard his interests.²

Much of this economic-background training can well be started early in the life of the pupil because of his contacts with the economic and business life all about him, of which he is an important part. Many business and economic concepts might well be introduced as early as Grade I and be continued through all elementary-school grades, as is now being done in a few schools. Such material is being published in increasing amounts, exemplified by such books

¹ Ada Kennedy and Cora Vaughn, *Consumer Economics*, pp. 12-13. Peoria, Illinois: Manual Arts Press, 1939.

² Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, p. 91. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1938.

as *Johnny Get Your Money's Worth (and Jane, Too!)*.¹ There is, however, much to be done in developing and organizing materials for use at the various grade levels. The grade placement and proper integration of this material at all levels must be improved through additional research.

Among many business educators the feeling exists that the important aim of business education in all schools should be to develop an understanding of relationships rather than, as has been the tendency in the past, to emphasize the viewpoint of the executive, the advertiser, the banker, and the merchant. Education from the consumer point of view should counteract the producer interest which at present dominates our society. Much can be done to improve the economic and social status of the consumer by teaching the pupil in school what he has often had to learn from costly experience.

Business education makes no claim for the full responsibility of this social and economic training; all departments of the school have a joint responsibility. Business education, with its broader purpose and realistic approach to the problem, is contributing much to the civic responsibility and economic intelligence of the pupil.

TECHNICAL BUSINESS EDUCATION

The second major purpose of business education is to prepare pupils for their initial jobs. This skill training will be referred to as "technical business education." There is a rather definite trend and need for moving this technical business education up to the post-high-school level.

Several studies are available which give rather reliable evidence of the need for advancing this perishable skill training beyond the high-school level. In a study made by the Cincinnati office of the Ohio State Employment Service,² it was found that, of persons employed between the ages of fifteen and twenty, only 5 per cent were seventeen years of age or younger. Most of those employed received their initial employment above the age of twenty.

¹ Ruth Brindze, *Johnny Get Your Money's Worth (and Jane, Too!)*. New York: Vanguard Press, Inc., 1938.

² Wendell Pierce, "A Study of the Employability of 100 Graduates of Academic High Schools with Three Years of Stenographic Training." Cincinnati, Ohio: Wendell Pierce (% Cincinnati Public Schools), 1939. Unpublished study.

Because the public schools do not offer youth adequate training above the high-school level, it is necessary that training for the initial job be given at the secondary level. Vocational education is listed as one of the issues in secondary education in the report of the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education of the Department of Secondary-School Principals. After presenting the arguments for and against vocational education in secondary schools, the committee positively declares in favor of vocational education: "The fact should no longer be concealed, however, that it is the argument against vocational education [in secondary schools] which seems to the committee to be unsound."¹

Technical business education should be of a nature that will equip the pupil with the skill required for initial employment as well as the ability to make subsequent occupational readjustments. Technical business education should be given only when and where the needs of the community justify such training.

When the local needs warrant technical business education, such training should achieve actual job standards. The outcome should be the ability to produce in terms of the requirements of business over a sustained period. The National Clerical Ability Tests, developed by the Joint Committee on Tests of the National Office Management Association and the National Council of Business Education, give the best measure of the extent to which technical business training actually meets job standards.

Business education today is not adequately meeting its vocational purpose. According to the 1930 Census, only 1,750,000 persons were employed as bookkeepers, typists, stenographers, and cashiers, while 6,200,000 persons were engaged in clerical work or positions relating to selling. Nevertheless, most of the emphasis in technical business education is placed on the training of stenographers and bookkeepers. The educational lag still exists; the schools are training more bookkeepers, typists, and stenographers than can possibly hope to secure positions.

¹ *Issues of Secondary Education*, p. 199. Report of the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. XX, No. 59. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1936.

The solution to this situation is for every school to give greater emphasis to the socio-economic purpose and more intelligent guidance to the pupils and for certain schools to widen their vocational offerings. Specialized courses in clerical practice and retail selling should be inaugurated to give proper training for positions in these fields, which are available in many communities.

Every experienced administrator and business teacher knows that there are large numbers of pupils who are not capable of becoming stenographers or bookkeepers. There is great need for better guidance of pupils in the technical business area. Many school systems are attempting to solve this problem of proper selection on the basis of interest, personality, and abilities possessed by the individual pupil.

Another important problem in connection with this technical purpose of business education is the development of an efficient placement service. If technical business training is to retain its rightful place, the schools must accept the responsibility for placing the pupils who successfully complete the training.

CONCLUSION

(1) General business training of a nontechnical nature is the first purpose of business education. This purpose is attainable in all schools. (2) The second major purpose is technical business education. What, how much, and for whom will depend on the occupational needs of the community. (3) More attention should be given to guidance and placement.

A COMPARISON OF ABILITIES IN CURSIVE AND MANUSCRIPT WRITING AND IN CREATIVE ART

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THIS investigation is an endeavor to discover, through experimental study, the relation of ability in cursive and manuscript writing to ability in creative art. In the Wydown School eighth-grade pupils are required to study art, but ninth-grade pupils may elect art. In both grades all pupils whose handwriting is below standard in quality are given remedial instruction in penmanship. It is observed that a majority of the pupils electing art possess exceptional ability in creative art but do not write well; it is further observed that a majority of the pupils required to take art write above standard. In remedial-penmanship instruction both cursive and manuscript writing are taught. Four groups of pupils, therefore, appear among those studied in this experiment: Group I, pupils who elect art and who are required to take remedial penmanship; Group II, pupils who are required to study art but do not practice penmanship; Group III, pupils who do not study art but do practice penmanship; Group IV, the control group of pupils, who neither study art nor practice penmanship.

DESCRIPTION OF INSTRUCTION IN WRITING AND IN ART

Testing and instruction in writing.—The tests in cursive and manuscript writing were given in the first and last weeks of the experiment. For cursive writing the test used was the Ayres Measuring Scale for Handwriting, Gettysburg Edition. The scores were divided into ten groups and were agreed upon by the teacher and the supervisor. Pupils whose original scores were less than 50 were given individual instruction. Each pupil analyzed his own writing for its defects and then attempted to improve his weaknesses through prac-

tice of exercises treating position and movement, slant, alignment, quality of line, letter formation, and spacing. To develop the ability to write legibly at a reasonable rate was the primary aim of remedial instruction in cursive writing.

The quality of manuscript writing was determined through the use of the Conard Manuscript Writing Standard—Pen Forms. Each step on the scale was given a value of ten points; pupils with scores as high as 70 were included in the experimental group, for Steps 7 and 8 rank as sixth-grade levels. The instruction consisted in having each pupil use independently the manuscript instructions provided in the Clayton course of study.¹ In all, pupils practiced cursive and manuscript writing for a thirty-minute period twice a week throughout the duration of the experiment.

Art testing and instruction.—The McAdory Art Test was administered both as a pretest and as a final test to determine the art ability of the pupils and their progress in the subject as a result of creative expression in the field. Each of the twenty-two plates of the test consists of four illustrations of a single subject and calls for discrimination in one or more of the following art elements: shape and line-arrangement; massing of light and dark; color—use of hue, value, and chroma. Again, ten steps of art ability served to classify the scores. These steps were based on the data supplied by the author of the test to the effect that 115 correct placements out of 288 represent the sixth-grade level and a mean difference of eight points differentiates each grade at elementary-school, high-school, and college levels.

The art course itself emphasizes creative, functional, and appreciational experiences. The particular unit carried on during the experiment consisted of a review of the basic elements of art (line, form, tone, color, and texture) in a composition project of a creative nature.

ANALYSIS OF EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

There were thirty pupils in each of the four groups of pupils in the experiment. The study extended over twelve weeks in the sec-

¹ "Tentative Course in Handwriting for Public Schools of Clayton, Maplewood, and Webster Groves, Missouri," pp. 10-18. Clayton, Missouri: Co-operating City Schools of Clayton, Maplewood, Webster Groves, 1936.

ond semester of 1939. Both art and penmanship were taught by the experimenter, assisted by a special supervisor of each subject.

Pretest results.—The pretesting program furnished data basic for the interpretation of the results. Chronological age, intelligence, educational achievement, quality of cursive handwriting, skill in manuscript writing, and art ability were the characteristics used as a basis of comparison of the four groups. Table 1 shows that the control group (Group IV) had an average age less than the average age of each of the other three groups but that the range of ages was approximately the same in the four groups. The control group also ranked highest in mean intelligence. Group I, consisting of pupils who elect art, ranked significantly low on the basis of average educational quotient. All groups were extremely heterogeneous in educational achievement. Naturally the groups were very similar in average scores on cursive writing, for all pupils with scores below 50 were required to be in remedial classes. The standard deviations and the range of scores were likewise similar. Two groups, Groups I and III, showed a wide range of scores in manuscript writing. Group I, containing pupils electing art, had an average art score of 50.3. Group II, containing pupils required to study art, ranked next highest in art ability, with an average score of 44.0. This score was probably high because these particular pupils had been in art classes continuously. Groups III and IV had lower art scores probably because they had too little interest in art to take it as an elective and because they had had no art for one semester. All four groups showed marked individual differences as evidenced by the standard deviations.

Progress in quality of writing and in art ability.—The data in Table 2 show that on the pretest the quality of the cursive handwriting of the remedial cases selected for the experiment was in no case higher than 40. On the final test Group I had fifteen scores and Group III had eleven scores above 50. Both these groups were receiving instruction in penmanship. Without instruction, Group II had one score and Group IV no scores above 50 on the final test.

In manuscript writing Group I had one score above 50 in the pretest, and all thirty were above 50 in the final test. Group II had no score above 50 in the pretest as against nine above 50 in the final

test. Group III advanced from one to twenty-three scores above 50 during the period of experiment. Group IV had no score of 50 or

TABLE 1
COMPARISON OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS
AT BEGINNING OF EXPERIMENT

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
Chronological age (in months):			
I (elective art, remedial penmanship).....	173.0	10.4	157-195
II (required art, no penmanship).....	176.4	8.8	158-198
III (no art, remedial penmanship).....	181.0	10.5	155-190
IV (no art, no penmanship).....	170.2	9.0	156-192
Intelligence quotient:			
I (elective art, remedial penmanship).....	108.9	10.5	88-126
II (required art, no penmanship).....	103.7	9.2	80-130
III (no art, remedial penmanship).....	106.2	12.7	80-128
IV (no art, no penmanship).....	109.4	9.3	89-128
Educational quotient (in months):			
I (elective art, remedial penmanship).....	155.5	20.9	125-185
II (required art, no penmanship).....	168.2	19.2	120-204
III (no art, remedial penmanship).....	174.5	25.9	123-232
IV (no art, no penmanship).....	164.2	19.3	122-195
Score on cursive writing:			
I (elective art, remedial penmanship).....	23.0	4.6	20-30
II (required art, no penmanship).....	24.0	6.1	20-40
III (no art, remedial penmanship).....	25.7	7.6	20-40
IV (no art, no penmanship).....	23.3	6.0	20-40
Score on manuscript writing:			
I (elective art, remedial penmanship).....	22.0	15.4	10-60
II (required art, no penmanship).....	21.3	11.5	10-40
III (no art, remedial penmanship).....	19.7	15.4	10-70
IV (no art, no penmanship).....	17.3	7.9	10-30
Score on art ability:			
I (elective art, remedial penmanship).....	50.3	19.2	20-90
II (required art, no penmanship).....	44.0	16.5	10-80
III (no art, remedial penmanship).....	27.7	18.4	10-80
IV (no art, no penmanship).....	31.7	13.7	10-60

above to begin with but had one above on the final test. Since scores 90 and 100 represent adult ability, Group I can be said to have had twenty-two and Group III to have had five pupils who at the end of the experimental period were doing manuscript writing at the adult level.

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ACCORD-
ING TO SCORES ON QUALITY OF CURSIVE WRITING, MANUSCRIPT
WRITING, AND CREATIVE ART

SCORE	NUMBER OF PUPILS							
	Group I (Elec- tive Art, Remedial Penmanship)		Group II (Re- quired Art, No Penman- ship)		Group III (No Art, Remedial Penmanship)		Group IV (No Art, No Pen- manship)	
	Pre- test	Final Test	Pre- test	Final Test	Pre- test	Final Test	Pre- test	Final Test
Cursive writing:								
100.....								
90.....								
80.....						1		
70.....		3				1		
60.....		12		1		9		
50.....		9		2		8		4
40.....		5	2	3	5	9	2	7
30.....	9	1	8	9	7	2	6	11
20.....	21		20	15	18		22	8
10.....								
Mean score.....	23.0	53.7	24.0	28.3	25.7	50.3	23.3	32.3
Standard deviation.	4.6	9.8	6.1	10.7	7.6	11.4	6.0	9.9
Manuscript writing:								
100.....		10				2		
90.....		12				3		
80.....		6				6		
70.....		1		1	1	6		
60.....	1	1		8		6		1
50.....	3			5	3	2		
40.....	2		6	8		3		1
30.....	5		4	6	2	1	6	5
20.....	3		8	2	7	1	10	13
10.....	16		12		17		14	10
Mean score.....	22.0	89.7	21.3	44.7	19.7	66.7	17.3	20.3
Standard deviation.	15.4	9.8	11.5	13.4	15.4	19.6	7.9	10.9
Creative art:								
100.....						1		
90.....	2	4						
80.....	2	6	1	3	1			
70.....	4	4	3	5				
60.....	3	10	3	1	2	3	3	1
50.....	3	3	6	6	3	1	1	3
40.....	9	3	9	12	3	1	8	5
30.....	6		4	1	3	8	6	10
20.....	1		3	2	9	10	10	9
10.....			1		9	6	2	2
Mean score.....	50.3	66.3	44.0	50.0	27.7	28.7	31.7	30.3
Standard deviation.	19.2	14.9	16.5	16.5	18.4	18.4	13.7	12.0

The art ratings show that in Group I (pupils electing art) there was an increase of thirteen in the number of pupils with scores above 50 on the final test over the number with like scores on the pretest. Group II had two more, Group III had one more, and Group IV had two fewer pupils with scores above 50 on the final test than on the pretest. Both the art groups (Groups I and II) ranked superior in art to the groups not taking art (Groups III and IV).

Comparison of improvement in writing and in art ability.—The gains made by the four groups are shown in Table 3. Group I, electing art and taking remedial penmanship, made an actual average gain in cursive-writing ability of 21.7 over the control group (Group IV). Group II, studying art but not practicing penmanship, made less gain in cursive-writing ability than did the control group. Group III, not taking art but practicing penmanship, gained 15.6 more in average rating on cursive writing than did the control group. The table further shows that pupils who elect art, although poor in cursive-writing ability, progress more in this skill than do pupils who merely study penmanship. On the other hand, art students who do not practice penmanship make little gain in this skill. Since Groups I and III (which were given instruction in penmanship) made substantial gains, while Groups II and IV (which had no penmanship instruction) made insignificant gains, it may be said that the gains of the former groups were directly due to instruction.

Group I also made the greatest gain of all groups in average manuscript-writing ability. The gain of Group II was probably due to the application of this skill in the art course. Group III made rapid gain in this skill. Apparently, manuscript-writing skill is more easily attained than is cursive-writing skill. Comparisons of the gains of Groups I and II with the control group (Group IV) indicate that pupils electing art, as well as those required to study art, improve more rapidly than pupils not exposed to art.

The pupils of Group I rated high in art ability at the beginning of the experiment, and by the end of the experiment they had risen from tenth- and eleventh-grade levels to eleventh- and twelfth-grade art levels. The pupils studying art through requirement (Group II) ranked normal for their grade. By the end of the experiment they had gained less than half as much as Group I. Art in-

TABLE 3
AVERAGE SCORES AND GAINS MADE BY FOUR GROUPS ON TWO TESTS OF
QUALITY OF CURSIVE WRITING, MANUSCRIPT WRITING
AND CREATIVE ART

GROUP	PRETEST	FINAL TEST	GAIN
Cursive Writing			
I (elective art, remedial penmanship)	23.0	53.7	30.7
II (required art, no penmanship)	24.0	28.3	4.3
III (no art, remedial penmanship)	25.7	50.3	24.6
IV (no art, no penmanship)	23.3	32.3	9.0
Differences in scores:			
Group I over Group IV	- 0.3	21.4	21.7
Group II over Group IV	0.7	- 4.0	- 4.7
Group III over Group IV	2.4	18.0	15.6
Group I over Group II	- 1.0	25.4	26.4
Group I over Group III	- 2.7	3.4	6.1
Group II over Group III	- 1.7	- 22.0	- 20.3
Manuscript Writing			
I (elective art, remedial penmanship)	22.0	89.7	67.7
II (required art, no penmanship)	21.3	44.7	23.4
III (no art, remedial penmanship)	19.7	66.7	47.0
IV (no art, no penmanship)	17.3	20.3	3.0
Differences in scores:			
Group I over Group IV	4.7	69.4	64.7
Group II over Group IV	4.0	24.4	20.4
Group III over Group IV	2.4	46.4	44.0
Group I over Group II	0.7	45.0	44.3
Group I over Group III	2.3	23.0	20.7
Group II over Group III	1.6	- 22.0	- 23.6
Creative Art			
I (elective art, remedial penmanship)	50.3	66.3	15.7
II (required art, no penmanship)	44.0	50.0	6.0
III (no art, remedial penmanship)	27.7	28.7	1.0
IV (no art, no penmanship)	31.7	30.3	- 1.4
Differences in scores:			
Group I over Group IV	18.6	35.8	17.2
Group II over Group IV	12.3	19.7	7.4
Group III over Group IV	- 4.0	- 1.6	2.4
Group I over Group II	6.3	16.1	9.8
Group I over Group III	22.6	37.4	14.8
Group II over Group III	16.3	21.3	5.0

struction, however, was beneficial for them. Both Groups III and IV ranked low in art ability as compared with Groups I and II, and their average gain and loss were insignificant.

Group I, with an average age of 173.0 months, an average intelligence quotient of 108.9, and an educational quotient of 155.5 months, increased their skill more significantly in manuscript writing and in art than in cursive writing. Group III, with an average age of 181.0, an intelligence quotient of 106.2, and an educational quotient of 174.5, gained more in manuscript writing than in cursive writing. Group II, with an average age of 176.4, an average intelligence quotient of 103.7, and an average educational quotient of 168.2, gained more in manuscript writing than in the other abilities, and for them art instruction only fairly compensated itself.

GENERAL SUMMARY

The object of this study was to find the relation of ability in cursive and manuscript writing to ability in creative art at the eighth- and ninth-grade levels. The results are valid only for pupils and conditions similar to those in this study and for findings based on the statistical evidence at hand.

On the basis of these results the following conclusions seem applicable: (1) Pupils who elect art have a lower educational quotient than pupils who do not elect art in the first year of the high school. (2) Pupils, regardless of interest in art, rank about equally in ability in cursive writing and ability in manuscript writing. (3) Ninth-grade pupils who elect art improve more in cursive-writing ability than do pupils not interested in art. (4) Ninth-grade pupils (Groups I and III) taking remedial instruction in cursive writing benefit from such instruction during a twelve-week improvement period. (5) Some manuscript writing is learned in a required study of art, but more is learned as a result of penmanship study; the pupils electing art improve more than pupils without art. (6) Manuscript-writing ability is gained more easily or more rapidly than cursive-writing ability. (7) Pupils who elect art at the ninth-grade level grow two grades or more in art knowledge in one semester. (8) Pupils required to study art at the advanced eighth-grade level make only normal progress in a knowledge of art. (9) Pupils who do not study art

make practically no gain or loss in art knowledge at the end of one year. (10) Experience in creative art is sufficient to give growth in art principles and understandings.

IMPLICATIONS OF THESE FINDINGS WITH RESPECT
TO SCHOOL POLICY

The policy in regard to art.—Art should be an elective subject at the high-school level. Pupils with an educational quotient of average or below but with talent in art will advance rapidly in creative art. Art instruction can be entirely directed to the development of the creative abilities of the pupils. Pupils who possess no exceptional talent in art may take it with the expectation of making normal progress in the subject; other pupils of the same art level will retain the art knowledge that they have acquired.

The policy in regard to handwriting.—Penmanship instruction should be given to ninth-grade pupils whose handwriting is below standard. For most pupils a twelve-week practice period is sufficiently long to accomplish satisfactory results in cursive writing. Those whose progress is slow in cursive writing may learn manuscript writing instead of cursive writing. Manuscript writing should be included in the penmanship course. Pupils who excel in art benefit greatly from instruction in both cursive and manuscript writing.

INFLUENCES OF NEWSPAPER ROUTES

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*

INTRODUCTION

THE purpose of this article is to report briefly the results of a limited study of the school records and other available information pertaining to the work of boys employed on newspaper routes. The study was made to determine whether such outside employment contributes favorably toward the high-school progress of these boys. The study is limited to an examination of the school records and other information concerning some of the outside activities of 187 boys, of average mental abilities, who were enrolled in the Phoenix (Arizona) Union High School during the school year 1938-39 and who were carrying both morning and afternoon paper routes for the two Phoenix daily newspapers: the *Arizona Republic* and the *Phoenix Gazette*.

The two Phoenix daily papers are owned and operated by the same publishing company. The boys who have routes for these papers are required to deliver papers over the same routes for both the morning and the afternoon editions. Thus each boy employed as a paper-carrier makes two deliveries a day to patrons on his route in addition to performing other duties connected with the work. The conclusions of this study cannot, therefore, be applied in whole to other sections of the country where boys with newspaper routes are expected to cover their routes only once a day.

EFFECTS OF NEWSPAPER ROUTES

Analyses were made of the activities and duties of the newspaper-carriers considered in the study, the results of which will be presented under the captions of (1) scholastic progress of newspaper-route boys, (2) citizenship of newspaper-route boys, and (3) purported outcomes as given by the boys themselves.

Scholastic progress.—In the determination of the influence of newspaper-route work on the school progress of the boys under consideration, the marks that they received were used as the criterion for judging their scholastic progress. An examination of the marks of these boys showed clearly that, on the average, they earned better marks in their formal courses before and after such employment than they earned while they were working as newspaper-route boys. However, the fact that a few boys actually earned better scholastic marks after beginning to deliver papers than they had made while they were not so employed suggests that the problem of the relation of newspaper routes to scholastic progress can be handled successfully only by considering individual cases instead of adopting definite regulations to apply to all alike.

Citizenship.—For several years definite efforts have been employed in the Phoenix Union High School to aid in training for citizenship through the organized student-body government. Detailed records are kept for all pupils, on which individual citizenship ratings are recorded at the close of each semester. These records show that, on the average, the citizenship ratings of the newspaper-route boys were higher for them during the semesters in which they were not carrying paper routes than in the periods while they were so employed.

Outcomes as judged by the boys.—Information blanks which called for data pertaining to the work of newspaper-carriers were prepared and distributed to all the boys included in the study. The information supplied by the boys was in part objective, while the rest was of a purely subjective nature. However, it is believed that the information obtained by this method is fairly valid and may well be used in the consideration of the question under discussion.

Under the objective responses it was noted that the average newspaper-route boy in Phoenix is required to spend about four hours and thirty minutes each day in delivering papers, making sales, collecting, and performing other duties expected of him in the work. He spends only an hour and forty-five minutes on his school studies as compared with two hours and forty-five minutes before he began such outside work—or since he ceased such outside employment if he no longer carries a paper route.

Under subjective responses the boys were asked to record what they believed to be the worth-while things that they had acquired from their newspaper-route experiences. They responded that the work helped them to meet the public, gave them sound training in salesmanship, provided them with practical business training, taught them the true value of money, developed responsibility, taught them to follow directions, improved their personalities, made it necessary for them to form the habit of budgeting their time, and encouraged them to be prompt in meeting their obligations.

The boys were also asked to record some of the harmful effects of newspaper-route work. They maintained that this work caused them to lose too much sleep, did not allow them enough time for study, presented them with temptations to steal, injured their health, discouraged participation in school activities, allowed them no time for pleasure, caused them to develop bad spending habits, brought them into contact with bad company, and tended to make them irreverent or profane.

SUMMARY

Newspaper-route boys in general receive valuable training from such work, but the harmful influences connected with it tend to counterbalance the positive outcomes.

The academic records of the newspaper-route carriers, on the average, were not so good as could be expected of them when they were not doing such work.

The school citizenship of newspaper-route carriers, although not clearly evidenced by the study, appeared to be better for the boys before they took up this outside work.

Since the records of some boys did not show unfavorable results from their experiences with newspaper routes, it is well to keep the individual in mind in suggesting solutions for the problem and to dispose of cases individually as they appear.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

I. CURRICULUM, METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION AND MEASUREMENT

LEONARD V. KOOS
University of Chicago

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THE following list of selected references begins the ninth annual cycle of twenty lists covering almost the whole field of education, which is published co-operatively by the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*. The sequence of the cycle will be the same as in previous years.

In this list, as in its predecessors, the term "instruction" is applied in a comprehensive sense: it includes curriculum, methods of teaching and study, supervision, and measurement. The vertical extent of secondary education is assumed to reach through junior high school, senior high school, and junior-college years.

Because of the large amount of published material in this field, especially on the curriculum, it is no longer possible to include in the list all writings of merit. In certain fields or problems, such as the core curriculum and modifications to meet the needs of nonacademic pupils, the best one can do is to select representative items. A large portion of the increase in the total body of published materials appears to be in the nature of expositions of new curriculum ventures. Periodical literature on general method was not extensive during the year. The term "evaluation" seems largely to have displaced "measurement."

CURRICULUM¹

1. BERGSTRESSER, JOHN L. *Counseling and the Changing Secondary-School Curriculum*. Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. XXIV, No. 91. Chicago: National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1940. Pp. 116.

A monograph presenting a composite picture of "how thirty-eight schools and communities are attempting to improve the educational opportunity of their youth."

2. BIDDICK, MILDRED L. "Developments in Denver Secondary Schools," *Curriculum Journal*, X (November, 1939), 304-8.

Discusses eight of the more important of the common curriculum developments in the Denver secondary schools in connection with the Eight Year Study of the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association.

3. BOSSING, NELSON L. "Some Major Trends Relating to the Curriculum and Their Implications for Teaching," *High School Journal*, XXII (December, 1939), 313-20.

A discussion of the more significant recent developments in educational thought and their implications for teachers and teaching.

4. BRAGONIER, WENDELL H., and MORONEY, A. IRENE. "An Experiment in Preparation for Living," *High School Journal*, XXIII (January, 1940), 21-23.

Describes an experimental course in the Abraham Lincoln High School (Des Moines, Iowa) followed by pupils registered in a course in biology and one in home economics called "Personal and Family Living."

5. CASWELL, H. L. "National Defense and the School Curriculum," *Curriculum Journal*, XI (October, 1940), 248-51.

Emphasizes that defense rests on the total resources of a people—psychological, ideational, moral, physical, and technical. Points to the need for development of a great program of civic education. Generic as to school level.

6. CHARTERS, W. W. "Grass Roots," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XIX (January 17, 1940), 53-54.

¹ See also Item 297 (Dodds) in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1940, number of the *School Review*; Item 175 (Buswell) in the April, 1940, number of the *Elementary School Journal*; Item 273 (Blair) in the May, 1940, number of the *Elementary School Journal*; Item 415 (Gregory) in the September, 1940, number of the *School Review*; Item 438 (Featherstone) in the September, 1940, number of the *Elementary School Journal*; Item 453 (Leonard) in the October, 1940, number of the *School Review*; and Items 511 (Boucher and Brumbaugh) and 521 (Colvert) in the December, 1940, number of the *School Review*.

Warns against starting at the "grass roots" to build a local curriculum. Curriculum reorganization should take advantage of the extensive literature and mimeographed materials available.

7. CLARK, HAROLD F. "The Learning of Subject Matter," *Teachers College Record*, XLI (November, 1939), 102-15.
Taking each subject separately, the article indicates the advantage of the functional over the conventional subject-matter curriculum.
8. COUGHLIN, MILDRED M. "The Accelerated College Preparatory Curriculum in the Senior High School," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XVIII (September-October, 1940), 33-35.
Describes an accelerated college-preparatory curriculum offered by the Baltimore public-school system for the purposes (1) of shortening the time of preparation for pupils who are to enter the professions and (2) of preventing brilliant pupils from becoming bored with study.
9. *Curriculum Reorganization in the Secondary School, Grades 7-12*. Mississippi Program for the Improvement of Instruction, Bulletin No. 7. Jackson, Mississippi: State Department of Education, 1939. Pp. 368.
Study materials developed in the curriculum laboratories of six southern higher institutions and representing the combined efforts of teachers of Mississippi public schools and higher institutions of learning throughout the state.
10. CUSHMAN, C. L. "How To Improve the Curriculum," *Curriculum Journal*, X (December, 1939), 346-49.
Three questions are considered: "What kind of a curriculum do we want?" "What do the teachers do?" "What procedures help teachers grow?"
11. DE BOER, JOHN J. "National Planning for a Unified Program," *English Journal*, XXIX (April, 1940), 281-89.
Stresses the need for unification in the American educational program, which can be brought about through national planning.
12. DOUGLASS, AUBREY A. "How the Secondary Schools Promote Social Competence," *Secondary Education*, VIII (November, 1939), 267-73.
Discusses the beginnings of a secondary-school program for providing systematic training in the fundamentals—a program devoted to general training, including the vocational arts.
13. FREDERICK, O. I. "The Curriculum in the Light of Research," *School Review*, XLVII (October, 1939), 575-85.
A report of a study of the findings of research with respect to the extent and the organization of curriculum programs, points of view, purposes or aims of education, organization and scope of the curriculum, content and sequence of the curriculum, evaluation of the curriculum, and trends in curriculum development. Includes a selected bibliography of thirty-three titles. Generic as to school level.
14. HAND, HAROLD C. "Curriculum Adjustments in Pacific Coast High Schools To Meet the Needs of the Non-college Student," *Bulletin of the Nation-*

al Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXIV (February, 1940), 62-65.

Discusses in broad outlines the core offerings in ten "co-operating secondary schools" in California.

15. HOBAN, CHARLES F., JR. "Retreat to Aristotelian Mediocrity," *Educational Record*, XXI (April, 1940), 160-76.

Using Aristotle's definition of the word "mediocrity" as that which "always lies in the middle between two blamable extremes," the author argues for a return in education to the common sense which lies between the extreme traditional point of view and that of the new school of life-adjustment proponents.

16. JACOBSON, PAUL B. "The Improvement of the Program in One Secondary School," *School Review*, XLVIII (May, 1940), 337-48.

Tells how the University High School of the University of Chicago attempts to meet, within the present framework of the subject-matter departments, new demands of citizenship, of advancement in scientific knowledge, and of new ways of life.

17. JUDD, CHARLES H. "The Organization of a Program of General Education in Secondary Schools and Colleges," *School and Society*, L (November 25, 1939), 673-81.

Traces the development of the secondary school and college from the middle of the eighteenth century to the present and makes some suggestions of requirements for a general education necessary to meet the needs of youth today.

18. JUDD, CHARLES H. "Changes in Secondary Education Necessary for the Solution of the Problems of Youth," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIV (February, 1940), 39-52.

Advocates a series of innovations in the secondary-school curriculum aimed, first of all, at service to nonacademic pupils. Urges a program of general education which shall recognize the interests of the great majority of pupils who are not going to enter professions or highly skilled trades.

19. KANDEL, I. L. "The Meaning of a Liberal Education," *Teachers College Record*, XLI (November, 1939), 91-101.

A broad survey of the history and the concepts of liberal education at the secondary-school level brought down to date.

20. KERANS, JOHN A. "A Comparison of Work Taken by Graduates of Catholic and Public High Schools," *Catholic Educational Review*, XXXVII (October, 1939), 497-508.

Constructive criticism of the offerings of the Catholic schools, as compared with those of the public high schools, with respect to their suitability for meeting the needs of pupils after leaving school.

21. LAWSON, DOUGLAS E. *Curriculum Development in City School Systems*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. xiv+238.

A history of the curriculum in ten large cities over the period of a century.

22. MACCONNELL, CHARLES M., and OTHERS. "The Core Program," *Educational Trends*, VIII (March-April, 1940), 14-25.
An exposition of the core-studies program in the "New School" opened in 1937 by the Evanston Township High School and the School of Education of Northwestern University.
23. McCORMICK, R. C. "A Special Curriculum for the Nonacademic," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIV (November, 1939), 407-9.
Describes the special core curriculum provided for the nonacademic pupils in the Castlemont High School, Oakland, California.
24. McGUIRE, ANNE E. "A Core Curriculum Based on Everyday Problems," *High School Journal*, XXII (November, 1939), 278-80.
Describes in detail the core curriculum being used in the Altoona (Pennsylvania) Senior High School. Explains the preparation of the course by the teachers, the organization of the program, and the revision of the marking system.
25. MASON, EDWARD F. "Junior Colleges Study Terminal Education," *Curriculum Journal*, XI (May, 1940), 231-32.
Sketches the plans of the Commission on Junior College Terminal Education, organized under the auspices of the American Association of Junior Colleges and financed by the General Education Board, for a year of exploratory study.
26. METTER, HARRY L. "When the High School Is a Finishing School," *School Executive*, LIX (May, 1940), 15-17, 30.
Report of a questionnaire study of the common interests and common experiences of high-school graduates between the ages of eighteen and thirty who do not go on to college.
27. MORRISON, HENRY C. *The Curriculum of the Common School*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. xiv+682.
A long awaited formulation of policy by one who has been known to hold well-defined views on the scope and nature of the curriculum.
28. NUTTERVILLE, CATHERINE. "The Progressives' Eight-Year Experiment with High School Curriculums," *Education*, LX (October, 1939), 96-100.
One of many articles in recent years describing the experiment known as the Eight Year Study in the Thirty Schools, carried on in co-operation with the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association.
29. PETERS, CHARLES C. "The Curriculum and Social Values," *Review of Educational Research*, X (February, 1940), 30-34, 62-63.
A review of the literature for the three years ending August, 1939, on (1) the social needs of the curriculum, (2) large problem areas, (3) curriculum-making, (4) transfer values of instruction, and (5) factors shaping attitudes and opinions. The studies reviewed represent both the inductive and the general approach.
30. *Planning Curriculum Study with Local Groups*. Florida Program for Improvement of Schools, Bulletin No. 6. Florida School Bulletin, Vol.

XI, No. 1. Tallahassee, Florida: State Department of Education, 1939. Pp. 28.

Sets forth the place of group study in the general or long-range program of curriculum development in Florida and offers concrete suggestions for initiating and developing these local groups.

31. RICE, GEORGE A. "Trends in the Basic Curriculum in the Secondary Schools," *Practical Home Economics*, XVII (November, 1939), 313, 336-37.

Outlines a dozen trends in present-day basic courses in the secondary-school curriculum.

32. SPAULDING, F. T. "Three Problems for High-School Principals," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIII (December, 1939), 9-11.

Discusses the present requirements for graduation; the organization of the so-called "general" or "citizenship" curriculum; and the kind of education which high schools should provide for girls as contrasted with that for boys.

33. SPEARS, HAROLD. *The Emerging High-School Curriculum and Its Direction*. New York: American Book Co., 1940. Pp. xii+400.

A book of descriptions of innovating programs in a number of secondary schools, together with discussion of certain general issues in curriculum reform. Illustrated by the author with amusing drawings that help to drive home important points.

34. STONECIPHER, J. E. "Promising Efforts for Vitalizing the Secondary-School Program in Des Moines," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIV (February, 1940), 70-74.

Describes several avenues of approach to the question of bringing the practices of ten junior and senior high schools into vital relationship with the needs of their pupils.

35. THORDARSON, T. W. "Enriching the Small High School Curriculum," *Occupations*, XIX (October, 1940), 29-32.

Describes the progress made through free, supervised correspondence courses in North Dakota high schools.

36. TULLY, G. E. "Core Program in a Florida Laboratory School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XV (February, 1940), 108-11.

Describes the core-curriculum program carried on in the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School of the University of Florida during the school year 1938-39, with specific reference to the program of Grade VIII.

37. WALLER, CARL H. "Education for Vocations and College Life," *Curriculum Journal*, XI (April, 1940), 157-61.

Presents a broad outline of the course in "Vocations and College Life" given in Wisconsin High School, one of the thirty high schools participating in the curriculum experiment of the Progressive Education Association. ✓

38. WEERSING, FREDERICK J. "Curriculum Development as Teacher Growth," *Curriculum Journal*, XI (April, 1940), 166-69.
Discusses the three more or less parallel, interdependent phases or processes involved in a well-organized, democratically administered plan of continuous curriculum revision. Generic as to school level.
39. WEIL, DOROTHY. "Development of Humanities Survey," *Junior College Journal*, XI (September, 1940), 16-21.
Traces the development of the "Humanities Survey" course at Woodrow Wilson Junior College in Chicago from its inception in 1934.
40. *What the High Schools Ought To Teach*. The Report of a Special Committee on the Secondary School Curriculum. Prepared for the American Youth Commission and Other Co-operating Organizations. Washington: American Council on Education, 1940. Pp. 36.
Important recommendations of a special committee for desirable emphases in the secondary-school curriculum.
41. WOOD, HOWARD D. "Guidance in Providence's Integrated Curriculum," *Clearing House*, XIV (February, 1940), 336-39.
A description of the core curriculum of the Roger Williams Junior High School, which is built around the social sciences and includes all but the most specialized subjects.
42. WORTHINGTON, J. E. "Promising Efforts for the Educationally Neglected," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIV (February, 1940), 74-80.
Reports some of the efforts being made in Wisconsin junior and senior high schools to adjust the school curriculum to the needs of the so-called "non-college pupil."

METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION¹

43. BILLETT, ROY O. *Fundamentals of Secondary-School Teaching: With Emphasis on the Unit Method*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940. Pp. xvi+672.
A comprehensive basic treatment that reaches beyond the limits of "methods" in the traditional sense and extends into psychological foundations and curriculum relationships. Replete with illustrative material.
44. BLUME, CLARENCE E. "Classroom Visitation in the Junior High School," *School Review*, XLVIII (May, 1940), 374-83.
Reports the results of a questionnaire study participated in by 133 teachers and five principals in six Minneapolis junior high schools, to determine the status of classroom visitation in the junior high school and teacher reaction to its effectiveness.

¹ See also Item 452 (Jones, Grizzell, and Grinstead) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1940, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

45. BOARDMAN, CHARLES W. "Democracy in High School Supervision," *High School Journal*, XXII (October, 1939), 223-28.
Considers the meaning of supervision in a modern high school and the supervisory functions and responsibilities of the principal.
46. FLIEDNER, LEONARD J. "How Do Seniors Study?" *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXII (June, 1940), 28-32.
A questionnaire investigation of the study habits of 173 Seniors of the Flushing High School.
47. FOSTER, HERBERT H., with the co-operation of WILLIAM A. WETZEL and BERTHA LAWRENCE. *High School Supervision*. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons, 1939. Pp. xii+284.
A textbook dealing with the nature and personnel of supervision, the makeup of the supervisory program, classroom visitation, and the creative character of supervision.
48. GARY, FRANK I. "175 Pupils Tell Why They Do or Do Not Study," *Clearing House*, XIV (January, 1940), 280-83.
Lists the reasons why the pupils in a senior high school in suburban New York do and do not study the various subjects.
49. GRUHN, WILLIAM T., and CONNER, CONSTANCE. "Planning a Program for Teaching Pupils How To Study," *High School Journal*, XXIII (February, 1940), 61-65.
Considers the steps in planning a program for teaching pupils how to study and lists the general principles for such a program.
50. HARAP, HENRY. "Curriculum Materials Suited to Creative Supervision," *Educational Method*, XIX (April, 1940), 378-83.
Makes suggestions for the preparation and the use of materials that further the process of creative supervision. Generic as to school level.
51. PIERCE, PAUL R. "The Place of Study in General Education," *Curriculum Journal*, XI (March, 1940), 119-22.
Treats related changes in the status of study, with particular reference to extra-class practices in school and home.
52. PISTOR, FREDERICK. "Teaching Some Principles of Democracy," *Curriculum Journal*, XI (January, 1940), 7-10.
States five underlying principles of democratic society and discusses how they may be taught.
53. SYLVESTER, H. D. "Bennington's No-Homework Program," *American School Board Journal*, C (May, 1940), 47-48.
Describes the supervised-study program inaugurated in January, 1937, in the Bennington (Vermont) High School, for the purpose of abolishing all home work.

54. WELLS, CHARLES, JR. "Techniques in Supervision for the Small High School," *American School Board Journal*, XCIX (November, 1939), 27-29; (December, 1939), 22, 74; C (February, 1940), 34, 98; (March, 1940), 64, 122; (April, 1940), 21-22; (May, 1940), 28; and (June, 1940), 38-39.

Presents a picture of the typical small town and the demands and opportunities which await the principal or the superintendent there. Discusses the need for supervision, reviews techniques of supervision which may be employed successfully, and outlines a program of objectives and techniques.

MEASUREMENT¹

55. DRAKE, C. ELWOOD. "Trends in the Field of Evaluating Secondary Education," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXVI (April, 1940), 241-56.

Traces the development of present programs of evaluation in the secondary schools and the devices being used successfully in these programs. Includes a bibliography of sixty-three books and articles on the evaluation movement.

56. LEARNED, WILLIAM S., and HAWKES, ANNA L. ROSE. *An Experiment in Responsible Learning: A Report to the Carnegie Foundation on Projects in Evaluation of Secondary School Progress, 1929-1938*. Study of the Relations of Secondary and Higher Education in Pennsylvania. Bulletin No. 31. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1940. Pp. 62.

The report of an experiment undertaking to appraise the displacement of procedures stressing traditional "credits," "tests," and "marks" by a plan aimed to encourage "responsible learning."

57. WOOD, HUGH B. "Preparing a Schedule for Comprehensive Evaluation," *Curriculum Journal*, XI (October, 1940), 267-69.

A brief descriptive statement of the attempts of the author, assisted by several groups of college students and classroom teachers, to "(a) state the general objective of education, (b) break this down into specific objectives, (c) classify these, (d) define the major levels of maturity with which the public school is concerned, and (e) describe typical behavior or normal achievement for each specific objective at each maturity level."

58. WRIGHTSTONE, J. WAYNE. "Evaluation of General Ability To Manage Experiences," *Harvard Educational Review*, IX (October, 1939), 443-51.

Discusses the possibility of carrying techniques of evaluation beyond the measurement of academic aptitude and verbal intelligence to the evaluation of general ability to manage experience.

¹ See also Item 344 (Purnell and Davis) in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1940, number of the *School Review*.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

RETHINKING THE SOCIAL STUDIES.—To the busy teacher, significant statements of educational principles too often remain mere glittering generalities. During the past decade the Progressive Education Association has struggled with the problem of making such statements effective in practice. Its Commission on Secondary School Curriculum and the latter's committees have coordinated the findings of psychologists, the analyses of students of the social order, and the principles of progressive education in terms that the high-school teacher will find meaningful and applicable to the classroom. The Commission's general report, *Reorganizing Secondary Education*, was reviewed in these columns in February, 1940, and most of the supplementary volumes concerned with broad subject fields have now appeared in printed form. In the work under review¹ "the basic tasks of the social studies as a part of an integrated program of general education" (p. 25) are described, and ways are suggested in which the resources now at the command of well-trained teachers of the social studies may contribute to the accomplishment of this task.

The authors' fundamental viewpoint is indicated by the statement that the function of teachers of the social studies is "to use the resources of the social sciences in meeting adolescent needs so as to develop the desirable characteristics of behavior essential to the achievement of democratic values within the realities of the changing American culture" (p. 23). Like the American Historical Association's Commission on the Social Studies, the committee refused to recommend any one organization of curricular materials, but this volume represents a distinct advance in several respects. For suggestions in content and activities the committee drew upon resources of recent scholarship in the social sciences and new practices in experimental schools. The chapter on evaluation describes practical possibilities in that field far greater than those set forth by the Commission on the Social Studies. Purposes, content, and classroom procedures are carefully integrated into a whole, consistent with the point of view expressed in *Reorganizing Secondary Education*. The result is not a "grab bag" of casually related, sometimes contradictory, ideas, however brilliant, but a pattern in which unity in fundamentals, diversity in nonessentials, are admirably provided for.

¹ *The Social Studies in General Education. A Report of the Committee on the Function of the Social Studies in General Education for the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum. Progressive Education Association Publications. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. xvi+402. \$2.75.*

The first chapter of *The Social Studies in General Education* describes briefly the purpose and organization of the work. In chapters ii and iii, which draw heavily on the work of the parent commission, the authors analyze the American social setting and the needs of adolescents. Descriptions are given of significant aspects of modern industrial society and of democratic values and of the desirable characteristics of behavior in the situation. The "needs" concept is summarized, characteristics of adolescents are set forth, and factors conditioning the process of "growing up" in American society today are discussed.

The heart of the book is found in chapters iv-vii, each of which is concerned with one of the following basic areas of relationship: immediate personal-social, social-civic, economic, and personal living. Each area is defined, the needs of adolescents within it are stated, and specific ways in which the social-studies teacher may contribute to meeting these needs are suggested. In chapter viii the function of community study in a democratic school system is stated as "the development in adolescents of the desire and the ability to participate constructively in community living both for their own sakes and for the common good" (p. 288). Many useful "leads" are given to the teacher who wishes to fulfil this function but who may be somewhat hazy about the means to be employed. To most teachers and administrators chapter ix will be a revelation of the means now available for evaluation in terms of skills, consistency and changes in attitudes, aspects of thinking, and other behavior characteristics hitherto usually ignored or judged wholly subjectively. The concluding chapter lists briefly significant criteria for the selection of materials and sets forth broad principles to guide teaching and learning activities.

The authors of *The Social Studies in General Education* are to be congratulated for having written so readable a work. The short, well-selected bibliographies appended to most of the chapters will enable readers who so desire to follow up the special phases in which they may be interested. It is unfortunate that space limitations did not permit the inclusion of more illustrative material such as the questions and activities centering in the role of democracy in social-civic relationships (pp. 185-87). The teacher of social problems may well ask for further "blueprinting" before undertaking to use very extensively the resources of anthropology to demonstrate "both the profound social significance and also the cultural relativity of sexual mores" (p. 144).

Such minor defects, however, are scarcely worthy of mention in consideration of the extraordinarily able way in which the authors combined a progressive philosophy with the tremendously important contributions of the social sciences to secondary education. In so doing, they have expressed in a clear, consistent, yet flexible pattern the often vague but no less real objectives of many teachers. *The Social Studies in General Education* should be required reading for all who are interested in the teaching of the social studies at the secondary-school level, no matter what their primary field of interest.

R. E. KEOHANE

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THE RELATION OF MATHEMATICS TO GENERAL EDUCATION.—In the past much time and effort has been spent on the formulation of the objectives of mathematical education and of ways of realizing these objectives. The assumption has been that the teacher striving for mathematical objectives will automatically contribute much to the objectives of general education. Recently attention has been called to the fact that the extent to which general educational objectives are attained by the pupil depends on the way mathematics is being taught. Teachers of mathematics will therefore welcome the publication of a study dealing extensively with this problem.¹

The study has been prepared to meet the needs of three groups of educators: (1) teachers of mathematics who are interested in the reconstruction of the mathematical curriculum in keeping with modern educational theory; (2) administrators and curriculum experts searching for suggestions of the proper function of mathematics in the program of general education; and (3) mathematics teachers in general who desire to improve their teaching so as to meet more effectively the educational needs of the pupils.

The report is divided into four parts. The first is concerned with the mathematics teacher's part in the achievement of the objectives of education—an achievement which the committee regards as a co-operative enterprise of mathematicians, teachers of mathematics, and experts on educational problems. Since educational planning should be based on the "needs" of the pupils and since various meanings have been attached by writers to this term, the study defines the meaning of "needs" as the word is used in the report. It then presents a view of the major ideal of democracy, which leads to a formulation of the purposes of general education. Finally it shows how mathematics may aid in the achievement of these purposes.

The second part is a discussion of the development of ability in reflective thinking and of problems encountered in meeting the educational needs of pupils. The view is expressed that curricular sequences should be planned on the basis of real problems. The next seven chapters of this part of the report present, respectively, discussions on the following: the formulation and solution of problems; collecting, recording, and organizing data; approximating measures and understanding statistical concepts; the function concept and functional thinking; the basic operations; the nature of proof; and the intelligent use of symbols in mathematics.

The teacher of mathematics will find much in Part II which will aid him in teaching one of the most difficult, if not the most difficult, phase of mathematics—mastery of the processes in solving problems.

Part III presents a helpful and interesting chapter on the historical development and nature of mathematics, in which questions like the following are

¹ *Mathematics in General Education. A Report of the Committee on the Function of Mathematics in General Education for the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum. Progressive Education Association Publications. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. xiv+424. \$2.75.*

answered: How is the development of mathematics related to the development of civilization? How did mathematics develop as a science? How may the history of mathematics be related to instructional materials? How may it be adapted to the special interests of individuals? The value of these discussions to the teacher making use of historical material in his teaching and to the curriculum-maker should not be underestimated.

The reader of Part IV will recognize that the report regards the subject matter and the skills of mathematics merely as means to the end of developing individual personality. It is emphasized that the teacher must, therefore, know the problems and peculiarities of his group of pupils. The section presents ways of aiding the teacher in this task and illustrates the procedure with a full discussion of the case of one pupil, which is followed by a discussion of the application of the methods used in this case study to classroom work.

The closing chapter is a description of the general characteristics and methods of an evaluation program. It illustrates, with particular examples, evaluation techniques for measuring the attainment of several objectives of general education. Here is a problem which is in the early stage of development. It is to be hoped that a great deal of research on the subject will be done in the near future. The report has rendered a valuable service by making available summary suggestions for further study of the problems.

The reader looking for a complete mathematical curriculum will not find it in this report, but the teacher seriously trying to improve his work and his courses will find the report stimulating and profitable reading.

E. R. BRESLICH

TRAINING IN READING FOR SECONDARY-SCHOOL AND COLLEGE STUDENTS.—Here, in brief, is the philosophy underlying the Report of the Committee on Reading in General Education:¹ To cope with the demands of our complex and fluxionary modern life, the youth of this generation must acquire wide knowledge and discriminating wisdom. These demands have forced the high school and college to expand and deepen the program of general education. In this program visual aids, the radio, field trips, and laboratory activities are being employed more and more as mediums of learning, yet printed materials still remain the most important agent for communicating those experiences of which general education is composed. Students must, therefore, possess the ability to read efficiently if they are to secure the experiences by which the goals of general education are attained. Investigations have demonstrated, nevertheless, that relatively large percentages of secondary-school and college students are retarded in reading and, furthermore, that all students, whatever the quality of their reading may be, encounter problems in reading curriculum materials. It

¹ *Reading in General Education: An Exploratory Study*. A Report of the Committee on Reading in General Education. Edited by William S. Gray, chairman. Washington: American Council on Education, 1940. Pp. xiv+464. \$2.50.

follows that guidance and training in reading for *all* students should not cease in the elementary school; rather should it continue at more mature levels in high school and college.

Thus boldly stated, this philosophy may appear to be subject to qualifications. It may be argued, for example, that in any situation the efficiency of a student's reading is determined not alone by his ability but also by other factors, among which may be listed the nature of the materials read and the appropriateness and the clarity of his conception of what his purpose in reading should be. Unorganized and poorly expressed printed materials will cause difficulty for the best of readers. Many students may not have an appropriate and clear purpose in reading owing to the fact that their teachers have not formulated definitely the objectives of their courses. Obviously, improved reading necessitates improved textbooks, improved teaching, and improved course organization throughout the school. It may be argued, too, that high-school and college reading situations do not differ in kind, only in degree, from those met in elementary school and junior high school. If the difference is one of degree only, effective lower-grade teaching should equip the pupils with the skills essential for success in the reading situations of the high school and college; hence so-called "training" in reading at the upper levels would become no more than "remedial" training on the one hand or formal training in logic on the other. This statement would be a false interpretation of the committee's thesis, however, for it envisions a type of reading training for high school and college which would not be confined to skills, except for those students with reading deficiencies, but which, transcending such a narrow concept, would include instruction and practice in methods of reasoning about and with the content of printed materials. The committee takes cognizance of these and similar matters and deals with them in a sane and balanced fashion.

As do all the studies conducted under the leadership of William S. Gray, this report combines sound, coherent philosophy with usable recommendations pertaining to everyday practices. The report is of immense practical value; it contains the results of an appraisal of more than six hundred publications in reading and associated fields and of a number of surveys of current procedures. The reading specialist and research man will discover in it a presentation of issues and a careful delineation of those areas wherein further investigations are desirable. Librarians and teachers of English, social studies, science, and mathematics will find an analysis of the reading problems arising in their subjects and suggestions which will aid them in solving these problems, to the great advantage of their students. Persons interested in the application of semantics to reading or in the measurement of the various components and phases of reading will profit from the two chapters devoted to these topics. Finally, the report does much to help every teacher become a teacher of reading.

The members of the committee have "taken stock" in the field of reading. They have answered the questions: "Where are we?" "How can we use what

we have?" "Where do we go from here?" Consequently their report is an extremely important and valuable contribution to the philosophy, theory, and practice of reading and of general education.

ROBERT L. McCAUL

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PIONEERING RESEARCH IN AVOCATIONS.—The purpose of a recent piece of research¹ is to apply the methodology of vocational-aptitude testing to the field of avocations in the interests of both vocational and avocational guidance. The author attempts to obtain answers to three general problems: (1) the logical problem of the objective determination of avocational interests and the derivative patterning of these interests; (2) the nature of the relation between adolescent and adult avocational interests; and (3) the nature of the relation between vocations and avocations. A thorough search of the literature convinced the author that these particular problems were unanswered by previous investigations.

Strong's Vocational Interest Blank was used in the study. The validity and the reliability of this vocational questionnaire for avocational purposes were based on a test run of forty-four young men between eighteen and thirty years of age whose co-operation was obtained through the Young Men's Christian Association.

The Strong questionnaire was then administered to 288 adults and to 200 adolescents who were interested in four avocations: model engineering, instrumental music, amateur photography, and stamp collecting. The standardization groups were the first fifty cases; the validation groups were twenty men in each avocation. The analysis indicated satisfactory validity for the persons interested in model engineering and for the musicians but doubtful validity for the photographers and the stamp collectors. It was found that some vocations and some avocations are similar, while some are dissimilar. The findings for adolescents resembled the adult findings. The common-sense patternings of interest were established for these four avocations.

The relations between vocational and avocational interests were based on the vocational scores of two hundred hobbyists and the avocational scores of eighty-seven men. Again certain obvious relationships were uncovered. Two sections on the priority of vocation or avocation and on job satisfaction are developed for theoretical purposes. Another section is devoted to the characteristics of the men in these avocations.

An interesting chapter on the theory of vocations and avocations enhances the value of the book. The author rejects the current theories of "balance" and "contribution" and elaborates an individualized theory which postulates as its essential note the functional interrelation of present individual needs, the

¹ Donald E. Super, *Avocational Interest Patterns: A Study in the Psychology of Avocations*. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1940. Pp. xiv + 148. \$2.25.

given defined situation, and the accessible means to the ends for a particular person in a particular situation.

The reviewer is impressed with the author's hesitancy about the adequacy of his sample and is of the opinion that these doubts and conflicts are well founded. The sampling is subject to serious questioning for any generalization beyond the immediate data. For example, the Y.M.C.A. group used in the vocational-avocational validation is as distinct a social and vocational group as are Mannheim's "intellectuals," Steinbeck's "Okies," or Hooton's "firemen." With respect to his major sample of adults and adolescents, the reviewer, before attempting to make a fair estimate of the sample's validity, would like not only a more intimate knowledge of the clubs and members that were selected but also a knowledge of those that were not included in the study because of restrictions of one kind or another.

In addition, the reviewer is inclined to question the broad conclusions and generalizations somewhat generously deduced from the exceedingly small number of cases. While the reference to Fisher's sampling work on small numbers may be justified in certain instances, the reviewer is inclined to doubt its applicability to data of this kind. In any event an observance of Yule's cautions with regard to small numbers in a sampling might materially alter the author's notion of the significance attachable to the critical ratios obtained from his data. The reviewer believes that the great need of research workers in the field of avocations, which Super is pioneering, is a more adequate and incisive logical analysis of the ideas involved, with a view to establishing usable and meaningful scientific concepts. No amount of manipulation of data can compensate for the absence of a satisfactory theoretical content.

FRANK J. KOBLER

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SOCIAL SCIENCE FOR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS.—There is a marked tendency among writers of high-school textbooks in the social sciences to adopt the so-called "problem approach," cutting across traditional subject-matter lines in order to present the instructional material in terms of significant social issues. A recent textbook¹ has been organized in this fashion, with the social issues involved being termed "challenges" rather than "problems."

The main body of the book is divided into five sections: "Personal Challenges," "Institutional Challenges," "Economic Challenges," "Political Challenges," and "Social Challenges." Each of these is, in turn, divided into several more specific topics, with a chapter devoted to each. The section on "Economic Challenges," for example, includes the following topics: "Production," "Income," "Commerce," "Financing Exchange," "Labor," and "Consumption." The book is made up of twenty-eight topics of this sort.

¹ Joseph Irvin Arnold, *Challenges to American Youth*. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1940. Pp. 696. \$1.80.

Each chapter contains a brief introduction to the topic under consideration and an analysis of the factors involved in it. For the most part, the discussion is a straightforward recording of the major facts and generalizations that seem significant. Without going into detailed historical accounts, the author uses a genetic approach which will enable the pupil to gain some idea of how institutions and policies have developed into their present forms. An extensive use is also made of the enumerative or semi-outline technique, with frequent sub-heads pointing up the organization of the material. Each chapter is concluded with suggestions for pupil activity, questions for classroom discussion, and an extensive bibliography of general sources.

The discussion of the various topics is clear and able. The author, using objective and up-to-date materials, has made an excellent synthesis of the major opinions and facts. Some teachers may question the organization at various points and feel that there should be some shifting of emphases, but such difference of opinion is always to be expected in any treatment as comprehensive as that undertaken here. Some may also feel, perhaps, that the discussion is too general and not sufficiently pointed toward the ways in which high-school pupils participate in the areas of social living discussed. In both instances, however, the function of the individual teacher who uses the book is to apply such correctives as seem necessary.

It might logically be expected that, in a book organized on the basis of problems or challenges, the problems or challenges would be stated as questions or as significant propositions. The present author, like many another, has failed to develop the materials in this way, with the result that the book, although it presents an interesting method of organization, does not carry out what is stated specifically as its central purpose. The teacher who follows the author's lead and stresses the challenge approach must go beyond the material presented here and formulate the challenges himself.

The general format of the book is excellent. The type is large and clear, and there is a profuse use of photographs and diagrams. A number of the pictures add little or nothing to the information or understandings conveyed by the text, but they add markedly to the book's attractiveness.

CYRIL O. HOULE

University of Chicago

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

- BELL, HOWARD M. *Matching Youth and Jobs: A Study of Occupational Adjustment*. Prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1940. Pp. xiv+278. \$2.00.
- CRAIG, GERALD S. *Science for the Elementary-School Teacher*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1940. Pp. viii+552. \$3.00.

- Education on the Air*. Eleventh Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio. Edited by Josephine H. MacLatchy. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1940. Pp. x+368.
- ENGELHARDT, N. L., and ENGELHARDT, N. L., JR. *Planning the Community School*. Adult Education Series. New York: American Book Co., 1940. Pp. xx+188. \$2.50.
- Evaluating the Work of the School*. Proceedings of the Ninth Annual Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, Vol. III. Compiled and edited by William C. Reavis. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. x+236. \$2.00.
- HAGBOLDT, PETER. *The Teaching of German*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. x+306. \$2.40.
- MCKOWN, HARRY C., and ROBERTS, ALVIN B. *Audio-visual Aids to Instruction*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. xiv+386. \$3.00.
- Mathematics Instruction in the University High School*. By Members of the Department of Mathematics of the University High School of the University of Chicago. Publications of the Laboratory Schools, No. 8. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1940. Pp. xiv+184. \$1.00.
- Professional Education for Experienced Teachers: The Program of the Summer Workshop*. Prepared by Kenneth L. Heaton, William G. Camp, and Paul B. Diederich, with the assistance of members of the Committee on Workshops and various staff members and participants in summer workshops. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. x+142. \$1.25.
- REDMOND, MARY, and DAVIES, F. R. J. *The Standardization of Two Intelligence Tests*. Educational Research Series No. 14. Wellington, New Zealand: New Zealand Council for Educational Research, 1940. Pp. xiv+130.
- ROSENFELD, HARRY N. *Liability for School Accidents: A Manual for Educational Administrators and Teachers*. Sponsored by the Center for Safety Education, New York University, in Co-operation with the New York University School of Law. New York: Harper & Bros., 1940. Pp. xviii+220. \$2.00.
- ZIM, HERBERT S. *Science Interests and Activities of Adolescents*. New York: Ethical Culture Schools, 1940. Pp. viii+256.

BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- The Alcohol Problem*. Chicago: National Forum (417 South Dearborn Street), 1940 (second edition). Pp. 96. \$0.75.
- The Barnes Dollar Sports Library: *Basketball for Girls* by Wilhelmine E. Meissner and Elizabeth Yeend Meyers. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1940. Pp. 88. \$1.00.
- Basic French: Including "Madame Thérèse," "Les Trois mousquetaires," Ecrivons, Grammaire*, Vol. II. Arranged and edited by Helen M. Eddy, Marguerite Struble, Grace Cochran, and Florence B. Williams. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. xx+656. \$1.92.
- BECKER, CARL L., and DUNCALF, FREDERIC. *Story of Civilization: Showing How, from Earliest Times, Men Have Increased Their Knowledge and Mastery*

- of the World, and Thereby Changed Their Ways of Living in It. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1940 (second edition). Pp. xvi+864+xx. \$2.40.
- CARLSON, WILLIAM S. *Greenland Lies North*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1940. Pp. 304. \$3.00.
- DUHAMEL, GEORGES. *Les Jumeaux de Vallangoujard*. Edited with notes, exercises, and vocabulary by Mary Elizabeth Storer. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. xviii+184. \$1.20.
- GALDÓS, BENITO PÉREZ. *Doña Perfecta*. Adapted for early reading, with notes, exercises, and vocabulary by William F. Byess and Walter E. Stiefel. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. viii+200. \$1.20.
- HANES, G. M., and BENZ, H. E. Hanes-Benz Biology Test, Form A and Form B. Cincinnati, Ohio: C. A. Gregory Co., 1939.
- HART, ARCHIBALD, and LEJEUNE, F. ARNOLD. *The Growing Vocabulary: Fun and Adventure with Words*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. 126. \$1.00.
- The Heath-Chicago French Series: *Science Française: Readings in General Science*, edited with vocabulary by Ernest F. Haden and R. C. Trotter, pp. vi+64, \$0.48; Book VIII, *Contes par Mendès, Saint Juirs, Pouvillon, Coppée, Erckmann-Chatrian*, edited by Otto F. Bond, pp. iv+60, \$0.32; Book IX, *La Grammaire par Eugène Labiche*, edited by Otto F. Bond, pp. 60, \$0.32. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940.
- The Heath-Chicago Spanish Series: Book VIII, *En Guatemala: Lecturas, composiciones y arregladas* por Carlos Castillo y Colley F. Sparkman. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. iv+58. \$0.32.
- KANY, CHARLES E., and DONDO, MATHURIN. *Elementary French Conversation*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. viii+54. \$0.32.
- KNISS, F. ROSCOE. Kniss World History Test, Form A and Form B. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1940. Package of 25, \$1.30; specimen set, \$0.20.
- LEBLANC, MAURICE. *Des Pas sur la neige*. Edited with introduction, notes, exercises, and vocabulary by John B. Dale and Magdalene L. Dale. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. viii+86. \$0.48.
- MALLORY, VIRGIL S. *Mathematics for Everyday Affairs: A Course in General Mathematics*. Chicago: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1940. Pp. viii+472. \$1.28.
- Our Freedoms Series: *The Rights We Defend* by Chester S. Williams, pp. 72, \$0.48; *Right of Free Speech* by Chester S. Williams, pp. 84, \$0.48; *Teaching Democracy: A Teachers' Manual* by Chester S. Williams and John W. Studebaker, pp. 30. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1940.
- PARKER, CLIFFORD S. *French Practice Book: Rules and Exercises for Intermediate French in High Schools, Junior Colleges, and Colleges*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. vi+288. \$1.32.
- POND, FREDERICK L. Inventory of Reading Experiences. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1940.
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